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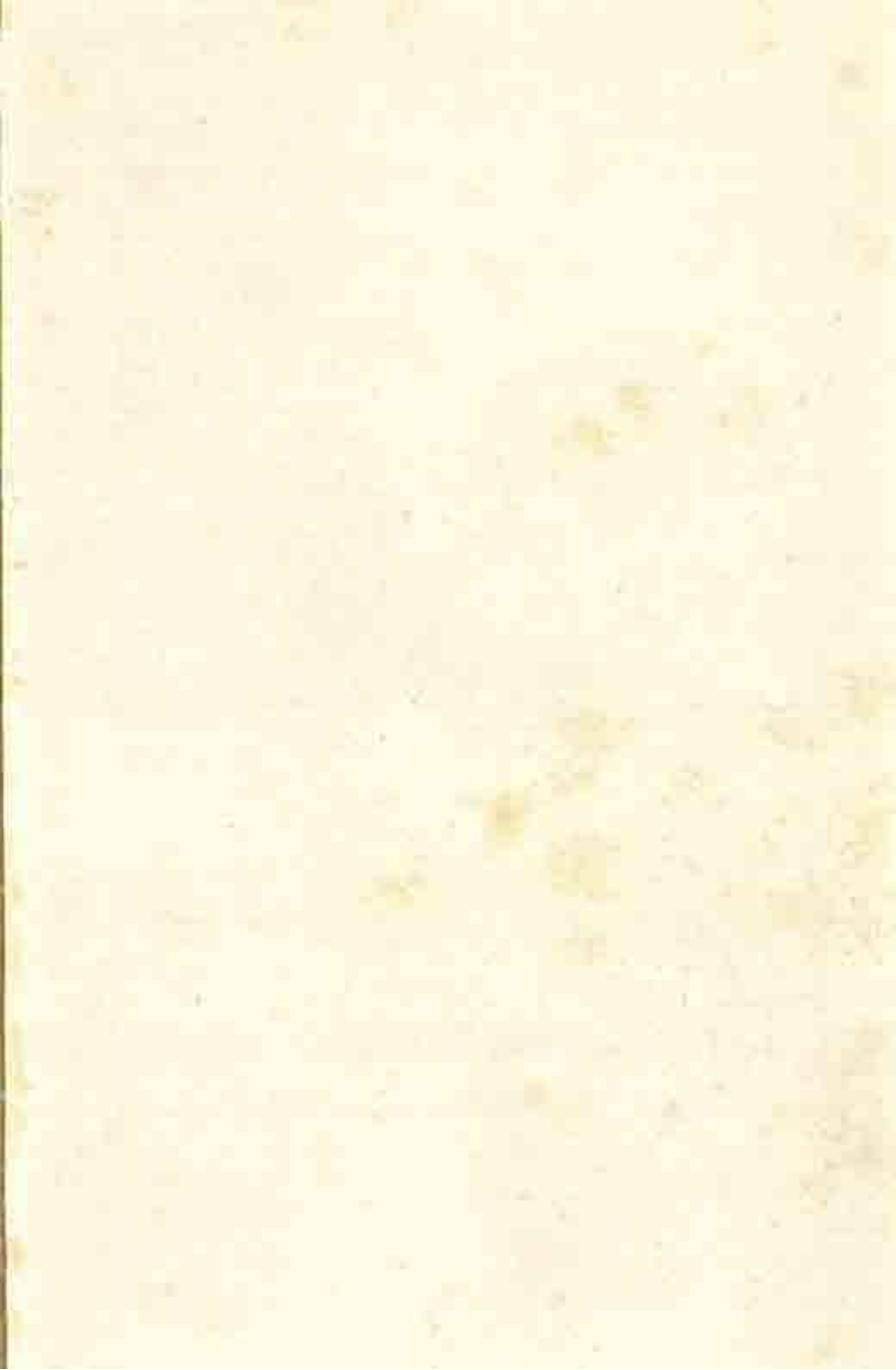
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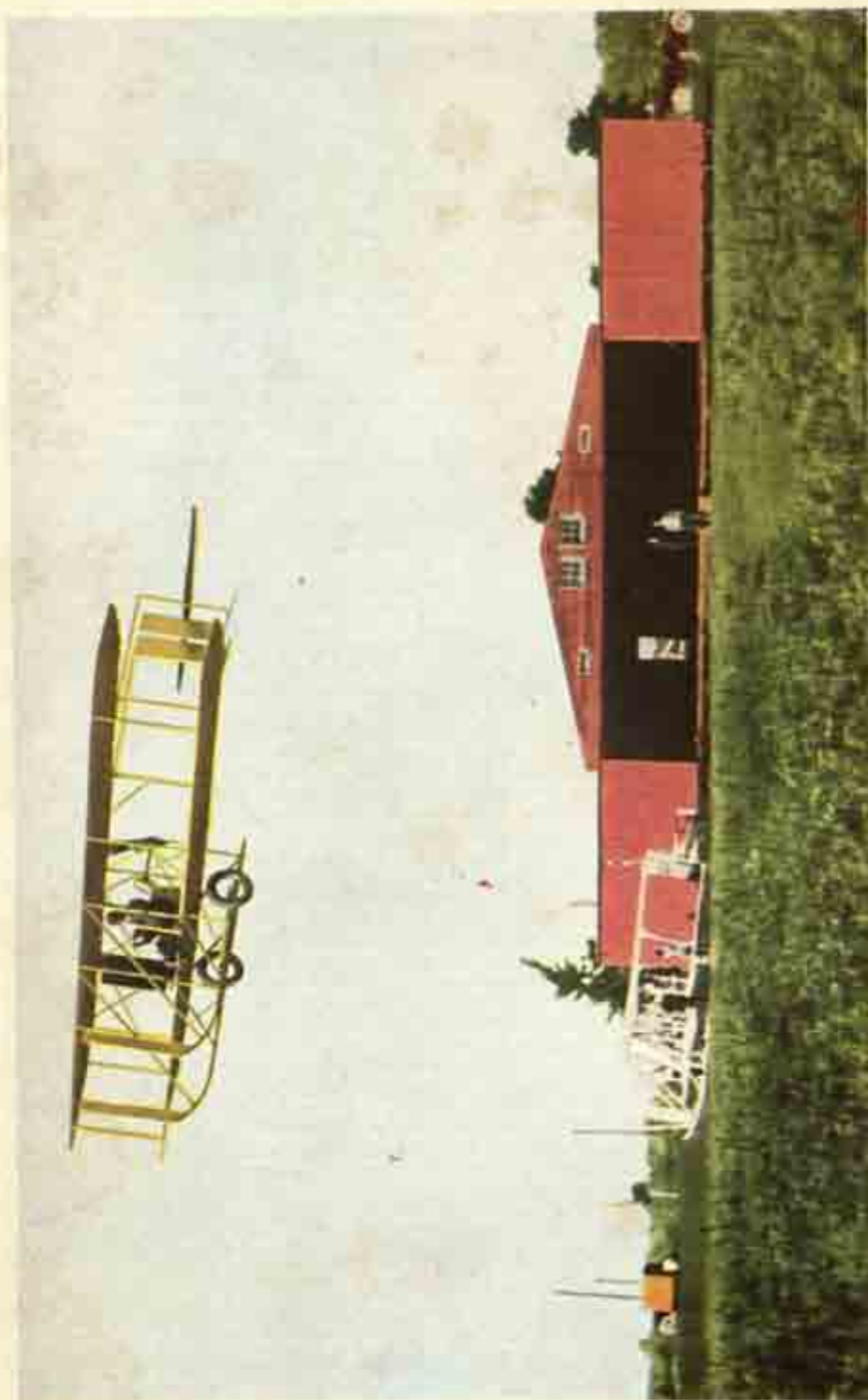
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ONE OF THE FIRST WRIGHT AIRPLANES IN FLIGHT (Pages 355-374)

The World's Great Events

An Indexed History of the World
from Earliest Times to the Present Day

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From A.D. 1904 to A.D. 1914

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RADIUM AND ITS LESSONS

(A.D. 1904)

SIR OLIVER LODGE

THE recent visit to London of Monsieur and Madame Curie, who in the intervals of teaching physics at Paris have made brilliant chemical discoveries, has revived the interest felt through the scientific world in radium and its properties since its discovery by the Curies in 1898.

Briefly these properties, as investigated by several physicists, are that radium, like the other far less active substances previously discovered, is constantly emitting, without apparent diminution, three kinds of rays: rays called γ , which appear to be chiefly of the same nature as the X-rays of Röntgen; rays called β , or cathodic, which are similar to the cathode rays in a Crookes tube and to the Lenard rays outside such a tube, and are found to consist of extremely minute flying corpuscles or electrons, negatively charged; and rays called α , which appear to be composed of projected and positively charged atoms of matter flying away at an immense

*Three
kinds of
rays.*

speed measured by Professor Rutherford of Montreal. The whole power of emission is designated radio-activity, or spontaneous radio-activity to distinguish it from the variety which can be artificially excited in several ways, and was discovered in the first instance as a bare experimental fact by M. Becquerel. The most prominent, the most usually and easily demonstrated kind, are the β rays; for these possess remarkable penetrating power and can excite phosphorescent substances or affect photographic plates and electrosopes after passing through a great length of air or even through an inch of solid iron. But although these are the most conspicuous, they are not the most important. The most important by far are the α rays, the flinging off of atoms of matter. It is probable that everything else is subordinate to this effect and can be regarded as a secondary and natural consequence of it.

*Heat-generating
power of
radium.*

For instance, undoubtedly radium has the power of constantly generating heat: M. Curie has now satisfactorily demonstrated this important fact. Not that it is to be supposed that a piece of radium is perceptibly warm, if exposed so that the heat can escape as fast as generation—it can then only be a trifle warmer than its surroundings; but when properly packed in a heat-insulating enclosure it can keep itself five degrees Fahrenheit above the temperature of any other substance enclosed in a similar manner; or when submerged in liquid air it can boil away that liquid faster than can a

similar weight of anything else. Everything else, indeed, would rapidly get cooled down to the liquid-air temperature, and then cease to have any further effect; but radium, by reason of its heat generating power, will go on evaporating the liquid continually, in spite of its surface having been reduced to the liquid-air temperature. But it is clear that this emission of heat is a necessary consequence of the vigorous atomic bombardment—at least if it can be shown that the emission is due to some process occurring inside the atom itself, and not to any subsidiary or surrounding influences. Now that is just one of the features which is most conspicuous. Tested by any of the methods known, the radio-activity of radium appears to be constant and inalienable. Its power never deserts it. Whichever of its known chemical compounds be employed, the element itself in each is equally effective. At a red heat, or at the fearfully low temperature of liquid hydrogen, its activity continues; nothing that can be done to it destroys its radio-activity, nor even appears to diminish or increase it. It is a property of the atoms themselves, without regard, or without much regard, to their physical surroundings or to their chemical combination with the atoms of other substances. And this is one of the facts which elevate the whole phenomenon into a position of first-class importance.

*Nothing
can destroy
its power.*

The most striking test for radio-activity is the power of exciting phosphorescence in suitable substances; as, for instance, in diamonds. Sir William Crookes has

shown that by bringing a scrap of radium, wrapped in any convenient opaque envelope, near a diamond in the dark, it glows brilliantly; whereas the "paste" variety remains dull. A number of other substances emit light also when submitted to the emission (in this case usually the β emission) from radium; and Crookes has also shown that the substance known as zinc-blende if submitted to the α rays of radium, which can be done by bringing a scrap of it sufficiently near a zinc-blende screen with no interposed obstacle or impediment, the bombardment, when looked at in the dark, becomes visible not as a mere generally diffused glow as in ordinary cases of phosphorescence, but as a multitude of luminous specks, darting or flashing hither and thither to all appearance, but really occurring first in one place and then in another, each flash or light-speck representing the impact of the atomic projectile upon a target. To see them individually some moderate magnifying power must be employed and it then constitutes a simple and beautiful experiment, for which the merest trace of radium is sufficient.

*Tests for
radio-
activity.*

But although the excitation of phosphorescence is the most striking test and proof of the power of radio-activity, because it appeals so directly to the eye, it is by no means the most delicate test; and if that had been our only means of observation, the property would be still a long way from being discovered. It was the far weaker power of a few substances—substances found in

Nature and not requiring special extraction and concentration, such as Madame Curie applied to tons of the oxide-of-uranium mineral called "pitch-blende" in order to extract a minute amount of its concentrated active element—it was the far weaker power of naturally existing substances such as that of pitch-blende itself, of thorium, and originally of uranium, which led to the discovery of radio-activity. And none of these substances is strong enough to excite visible phosphorescence. Their influence can be accumulated on a photographic plate for minutes, or hours, or days together, and then on developing the plate their radio-active record can be seen; but it is insufficient to appeal direct to the eye. In this photographic way the power of a number of minerals has been tested; but even this is far from being the most sensitive test. The most sensitive test that can be applied is the power which any radio-active substance possesses of rendering atmospheric air conductive, and so discharging any electrified body in its neighborhood. The most minute trace of radio-activity can be detected in this way; and by this means R. Strutt has found that the property is widely diffused that most metals and many other substances possess it to some small degree; and Professor J. J. Thomson has detected traces of the power in common water from deep wells.

The most sensitive test.

The emission of atoms does not seem, at first hearing, a very singular procedure on the part of matter. Many forms of matter can evaporate, and many others emit

The emission of atoms.

*Atomic
weight
of atoms.*

scent; wherein, then, lies the peculiarity of radio-active substances, if the power of flinging away of atoms at tremendous speed is their central feature? It all depends on what sort of atoms they are. If they are particles of the substance itself, there is nothing novel in it except the high speed: but if it should turn out that the atoms flung off belong to quite a different substance—if one elementary body can be proved to throw off another elementary body—then clearly there is something worthy of stringent inquiry. Now, Rutherford has measured the atomic weight of the atoms thrown off, and has shown that they constitute less than 1 per cent. of the atoms whence they are projected; though whether the matter flung off corresponds to any known material is at present quite uncertain. It has been suggested that it may be helium, but that is little better than a guess.

But the radio-activity of the substance itself—a substance like radium or thorium—is by no means the whole of what has to be described. When the emission has occurred, when the light atoms have been thrown off, it is clear that something must be left behind; and the properties of that substance must be examined too. It appears to be a kind of heavy gas, which remains in the pores of the radium salt and slowly diffuses away. It can be drawn off more rapidly by a wind or current of air, and when passed over suitable phosphorescent substances it causes them to glow. It is, in fact, itself radio-active, as the radium was; but its chemical nature

is at present quite unknown. Its activity soon ceases, however, gradually fading away, so that in a few days or weeks it is practically gone. It leaves a radio-active deposit on surfaces over which it has passed; a deposit which is a different substance again, and whose chemical nature is likewise different and unknown. The amount of substance in these emanations and deposits is incredibly small, and yet by reason of their radio-activity, and the sensitiveness of our tests for that emission, they can be detected, and their properties to some extent examined. Thus, for instance, the solid deposit left behind by the radium emanation can be dissolved off by suitable reagents, and can then be precipitated or evaporated to dryness and treated in other chemical ways, although nothing is visible or weighable or detectable by any known means except the means of radio-activity. So that directly one of the chain of substances which emanate from a radio-active substance ceases to possess that particular kind of activity, it passes out of recognition; and what happens to it after that, or what further changes take place in it, remains at present absolutely unknown. So it is quite possible that these emanations and deposits and other products of spontaneous change may be emitted by many, perhaps all, kinds of matter, without our knowing anything whatever about it.

Emanations and deposits.

The emanations from radium and thorium, however, are recognizable enough, by reason of their remarkably active properties; they can be passed along tubes and

*Liquefy-
ing-point of
emana-
tions.*

otherwise dealt with; and not only do they behave as a gas in ordinary ways, but their liquefying-point has likewise been approximately determined and found to be something like 250 degrees below the Fahrenheit zero. At this temperature, at any rate, they condense and decline to pass on; perhaps because they are entangled with the liquefying air or some of its constituents, possibly because they really liquefy themselves; but whether they really condense or not, they by no means lose their radio-active property, but, like every kind of substance which is known to possess this property, they continue it unchanged and undiminished through whatever vicissitudes they pass.

That being so, what is the meaning of the series of facts which have been here hastily summarized; and how are they to be accounted for? Here we come to the hypothetic and at present incompletely verified speculations and surmises, the possible truth of which is arousing the keenest interest. There are people who wish to warm their houses and cook their food and drive their engines and make some money by means of radium; it is possible that these are doomed to disappointment, though it is always rash to predict anything whatever in the negative direction, and I would not be understood as making any prediction or indicating any kind of opinion on the subject of practical applications of the substance, except, as we may hope, to medicine. Applications have their place, and in due time may come within

the range of practicability, though there is no appearance of them at present. Meanwhile the real points of interest are none of these, but of quite another order. The easiest way to make them plain is to state them as if they were certain, and not confuse the statement by constant reference to hypothesis: guarding myself from the beginning by what I have already said as to the speculative character of some of the assertions now going to be made.

Atoms of matter are not simple, but complex; each is composed of an aggregate of smaller bodies in a state of rapid interlocked motion, restrained and coerced into orbits by electrical forces. An atom so constituted is fairly stable and perennial, but not infinitely stable or eternal. Every now and then one atom in a million, or rather in a million millions, gets into an unstable state, and is then liable to break up. A very minute fraction of the whole number of the atoms of a substance do thus actually break up, probably by reason of an excessive velocity in some of their moving parts; an approach to the speed of light in some of their internal motions—perhaps the maximum speed which matter can ever attain—being presumably the cause of the instability. When the break-up occurs, the rapidly moving fragment flies away tangentially, with enormous speed—twenty thousand miles a second—and constitutes the α ray, or main emission.

*Atoms of
matter.*

If the flying fragment strikes a phosphorescent obstacle, it makes a flash of light; if it strikes (as many

Transmutation of energy.

must) other atoms of the substance itself, it gets stopped likewise, and its energy subsides into the familiar molecular motion we call "heat"; so the substance becomes slightly warmed. Energy has been transmuted from the unknown internal atomic kind to the known thermal kind: it has been degraded from regular orbital astronomical motion of parts of an atom into the irregular quivering of molecules; and the form of energy which we call heat has therefore been generated, making its appearance, as usual, by the disappearance of some other form, but, in this particular instance, of a form previously unrecognized.

Hitherto a classification of the various forms of energy has been complete when we enumerated rotation, translation, vibration, and strain, of matter in the form of planetary masses, ordinary masses, molecules, and atoms, and of the universal omnipresent medium "ether," which is to "matter" as the ocean is to the shells and other conglomerates built out of its dissolved contents. But now we must add another category, and take into consideration the parts or electrons of which the atoms of matter are themselves hypothetically composed.

The electrons.

The emission of the fragment is accompanied by a convulsion of the atom, minuter portions or electrons being pitched off too; and these, being so extraordinarily small, can proceed a long way through the interstices of ordinary obstacles, seeing, as it were, a clear passage every now and then even through an inch of solid lead.

and constituting the β rays; while the atoms themselves are easily stopped, even by paper.

But the recoil of the main residue is accompanied by a kind of shiver or rearrangement of the particles, with a suddenness which results in an X-ray emission such as always accompanies anything in the nature of a shock or collision among minute charged bodies; and this true ethereal radiation is the third or γ ray of the whole process, and, like the heat-production, is a simple consequence of the main phenomenon, which is the break-up of the atom.

The emission over, and the fragment of the atom gone, the residue is no longer radium, but is something else. What it is we do not yet know; but since it is produced in isolated atoms here and there, with crowds of foreign substance between, there is no cohesion or any continuity between its particles; they are separated like the atoms of the gas, or like the molecules of a salt in a very dilute solution in which there are millions or billions of times as many atoms of the solvent as there are of the dissolved salt. So they are easily carried away by any motion of the medium in which they are mechanically embedded; but they retain their individuality, and their radio-active power persists, because the breaking-up process is by no means finished, stability is far from attained: indeed, the instability is more marked than it was in the original substance; for whereas in the original substance only one single atom here and there out

The residue

of a million of millions was affected by it, here in the diffusing emanation or first product of incipient atomic dissociation every atom seems unstable, or at least to be in a very critical condition. So that in a time to be reckoned in minutes or days or months (according to the nature of the emanation, whether it be from thorium or radium or uranium) a further breakdown has occurred in every atom; and so its accompaniment of radio-activity ceases. The radio-active power has disappeared from the emanation, but it has not wholly ceased: it has been transferred this time to a solid deposit which has been the residual outcome of the second break-up. For the atoms of this deposit also are unstable and break up, in a time which can be reckoned in months, days, or minutes, apparently in roughly inverse order to the duration of the parent emanation. Another and another substance has also been suspected by Rutherford and Soddy, as the outcome of this third break-up; while gradually the radio-active power of the resulting emanations becomes imperceptible, and further investigation by present methods becomes impossible for lack of means of detection of sufficient delicacy.

Here then, we appear to have, in embryo, a transmutation of the elements, the possibility of which has for so long been the guess and the desire of alchemists. Whether the progress of research will confirm this hypothesis, and whether any of the series of substances so produced are already familiarly known to us in ordinary

*The
emanation's
radio-
active
power dis-
appears.*

chemistry remains to be seen. It is not in the least likely that any one radio-active substance can furnish in its stages of collapse the whole series of elements; most likely one substance will give one series, and another substance will give another; and it may be that these emanations are new and unstable elements or compounds such as are not already known, or it may be that they approximate in properties to some of the known elements without any exact coincidence. The recognized elements which we know so well must clearly be comparatively stable and persistent forms, but it does not follow that they are infinitely stable and perpetual; the probability is that every now and then, whether by the shock of collision or otherwise, the rapidity of motion necessary for instability will be attained by some one atom, and then that particular atom will fling off the fragment and emit the rays of which we have spoken, and begin a series of evolutionary changes of which the details may have to be worked out separately for each chemical element.

If there be any truth in this speculation, matter is an evanescent and transient phenomenon, subject to gradual decay and decomposition by the action of its own internal forces and motions, somewhat as has been suspected and to some extent ascertained to be the case for energy. If it be asked, "How comes it, then, that matter is still in existence? Why has it not already all broken down, especially in these very radio-active and therefore pre-

*Probable
evanes-
cence of
matter.*

sumably rapidly decadent forms of radium and the like?" the question naturally directs us to seek some mode of origin for atoms, to conjecture some falling together of their pristine material, some agglomeration of the separate electrons of which they are hypothetically composed, such as is a familiar idea when applied to the gravitational aggregates of astronomy which we call nebulae and suns and planets.

We may also ask whether many other phenomena, known but not understood, are not now going to receive their explanation. The light of the glowworm and firefly and other forms of life is one thing which deserves study; the Brownian movements of microscopic particles is another. Are we witnessing in the Brownian movements any external evidence, exhibited by a small aggregate of an immense number of atoms, of the effects of internal rearrangement and emission of the parts of the atoms, going on from the free surface of the particle? And can it be that the light emitted by the glowworm—which is true light and not technical radio-activity, and yet which is accompanied by a trace of something which can penetrate black paper and affect a light-screened photographic plate—is emitted because the insect has learnt how to control the breaking-down of atoms, so as to enable their internal energy in the act of transmutation to take the form of useful light instead of the useless form of an insignificant amount of heat or other

*The light
of the glow-
worm.*

kind of radiation effect; the faint residual penetrating emission being a secondary but elucidatory and instructive appendage to the main luminosity?

Many more questions may be asked; and if the conjectures now rife are to any great extent confirmed, it is clear that many important avenues for fruitful experimental inquiry will be opened up. Among them an easy and hopeful line of investigation, lying in the path of persons favorably situated for physically examining the luminous emission of live animals, may perhaps usefully be here suggested.

*Avenues
for experi-
mental
inquiry.*

And let me conclude by asking readers to give no ear to the absurd claim of paradoxers and others ignorant of the principles of physics, who, with misplaced ingenuity, will be sure to urge that the foundations of science are being uprooted and long-cherished laws shaken. Nothing of the kind is happening. The new information now being gained in so many laboratories is supplementary and stimulating, not really revolutionary, nor in the least perturbing to mathematical physicists, whatever it may be to chemists; for on the electric theory of matter it is the kind of thing that ought to occur. And one outstanding difficulty about this theory, often previously felt and expressed by Professor Larmor—that matter *ought* to be radio-active and unstable if the electric theory of its constitution were true—is being removed in the most brilliant possible way.

[In 1904, the British Army battles with 5,000 Der-vishes (1,000 killed). Arbitration conference assembles in Washington. House of Representatives passes Pure Food bill. Lord Northcote, the new Governor-General of the Australian Commonwealth, arrives in Melbourne. Mrs. Florence Maybrick is released from a London prison. Firedamp explosion kills 184 men in a mine near Ches-wick, Penn. The famous library of Turin is destroyed by fire. Taft becomes Secretary of War. Gunpowder ex-plosion of Fort Bhatinda, India, kills 40 persons. United States troops evacuate Cuba. Diplomatic relations be-tween Japan and Russia are severed. Conflagration in Baltimore, Md., destroys 2,500 buildings (\$125,000,000 loss). War breaks out between Japan and Russia. Ad-miral Togo attacks Port Arthur at midnight. Major Scott's command almost annihilates Moro rebels. Dr. Manuel Amador is elected first President of Panama. Earl Roberts retires. Panama Canal Treaty is signed by President Roosevelt. Conflagration in Rochester, N. Y., causes \$3,000,000 loss. State Capitol at Madison, Wis., burns. Prairie fires in Oklahoma make 1,000 families homeless. Japanese bombard Vladivostok. French ship *Camboge* is wrecked off coast of Cochin China (50 per-sons drown). Port Arthur is attacked. Japanese attempt to block Port Arthur with steamers. Tibetan mission en-camps at height of 15,500 feet. Two thousand Tibetans attack British (300 killed). British *Discovery* Antarctic expedition returns to New Zealand. Attempt is made to

Port
Arthur
attacked.

assassinate King Alfonso at Barcelona. Premier Maura of Spain is stabbed. Powder explodes on battleship *Mis-touri*, near Pensacola, Fla. Russian army retreats across the Yalu River. Tibetans surrender to the British.]

*Attempt to
assassinate
King
Alfonso.*

INTO TIBET

(A.D. 1904)

COLONEL H. C. WYLLY

DAYBREAK on the frontier; but a few moments ago it was still quite dark, and then a grayness came stealing down the pass; the snow-capped hills around us take on a pearl-colored and then a soft pink hue, rocks with the snow lying in their fissures are drawn against the sky—and that old campaigner, the Punjaubee mule-driver, is as usual heralding the morn by coughing his very soul out by the embers of last night's fire. The men—British and native—bivouacked within the high walls of the pass, are beginning to rise from the nooks and corners wherein at an elevation of 14,000 feet above sea-level they have dozed through the September night; half an hour ago it was impossible to distinguish objects more than a very few yards away from the radius of the dying camp fires round which the men were lying, but the darkness and the dank mist it brought with it are rapidly giving place to daylight, and already one can see the sentry from the

*Dawn
in the
Himalayas.*

*"The
world's
white roof-
tree."*

picket at the head of the pass stamping up and down on his post, thinking more of getting the numb feeling out of his toes than the giant peaks encircling him, the deep valley below, and the silence by which he is encompassed. A little stream tinkles down the pass, up which winds the trade-route from the plains of India to the highlands of Tibet; climb upward, and you stand upon what seems like "the world's white roof-tree," on the northeast frontier of India—downward, and you come upon the scene of last evening's fight, where huddled heaps in frowsy rags keep a silent vigil.

Yesterday morning—can it be only twenty-four hours?—we awoke at Gnatong, and found that, in the language of the camp, the Tibetans had "given themselves away"; during the dark hours they had come down from behind their walls on the southern slopes of the Jalep and Pemberingo passes, and had erected hangars nearly three miles in length along the hills at the head of the Gnatong Valley, whence they had shrilled defiance to us in the camp below.

We had never hoped for such good luck, and felt that the Lord had delivered them into our hands. The whole summer through we had possessed our souls in patience within our stockade at an elevation of 12,000 feet, where every night the snow had snapped our ridge-poles, and every day the sun had melted the snow into a morass about our feet; living in a region where in six months the rainfall averages a hundred and sixty inches, waiting

on and ever waiting for that "break" in the monsoon when our transport should find its legs and we might go out against the enemy and attack him in the passes; and here at last was our chance. The Tibetans had themselves come down to meet us, abandoning their triple line of loopholed walls, at which they had labored throughout the summer, for a narrow distant ridge roughly fortified in the dark hours of an autumn night. The preparations, which had already been made in anticipation of an advance, were hurried on; the British force moved out, and by the evening the Tibetans had been driven from the ridge and followed to the slopes of the Jalep La. We were too close upon their heels for them to make any stand among their defenses, and as the sun went down the enemy were in full retreat over the mountains while the main body of the British force was filing up the narrow rocky pass. Heavy clouds were rolling down from the peaks and mingling with the mists rising from the valleys, and at the coming of the dusk a fine penetrating rain commenced to fall, threatening a comfortless bivouac.

We had long since emptied our haversacks of the food we had hastily thrust into them on leaving camp in the morning, and the mules, carrying stores and blankets, were stumbling among the rocks at the mouth of the pass until long after midnight; some of us had crept into the forsaken tents of the Tibetans; others had—unwisely—put on the skin coats thrown away by the enemy in

*The
Tibetans
deliver
themselves
into the
hands of
the enemy.*

*How the
night was
spent.*

their flight, only to find that these were thickly populated by what the explorer, Chandra Dass, called "demons"; and the rest of us had alternately roasted and shivered through the night as we rolled from side to side in front of the camp fires.

But now the camp is well astir, and the company of British infantry which has been promised the lead into Tibet is already moving up to the summit of the pass a few hundred feet above the bivouac. It was one of those perfect mornings which in India the close of the rainy season so often brings with it. We had now left the gloomy pass behind us, at our backs was the loose stone wall where the Gnabu Depen had intended to make a final stand, and before us bathed in radiant sunlight lay the road to Lhasa. To right, left, and immediately below us are the rocks—amongst which the pathway winds and falls, but lower down appear wintry shrubs and dwarf rhododendrons, which again give place to primeval forest, in which the rough road is presently lost to view. Nowhere very broad, the valley narrows further on to a gorge of scarcely sufficient width to contain the torrent fed from the snows of the frontier; at the narrowest point of the valley a green spur runs down from the wall of a rock on the left, and while it effectually shuts out any view of the village which we know lies beyond, it discloses a trace of habitation in the Tajwi Monastery, perched upon a bluff overhanging and dominating the route. Beyond again rise hills at right angles

The morning's advance.

Beautiful scenery.

to our course, and these must, we know, be on the further side of the Chumbi Valley, few dilapidated huts, which our guide tells us are the villages of Langrang and Behuetang. We again descend to the stream, which now runs past with tremendous velocity, and which has swollen almost to a river; the valley has narrowed until the path has to find its way as best it can, now on one bank and now on the other, with a bridge thrown across whose timbers are lying broken in the eddies. Our leading files cross hastily over—half wading, half clambering along the broken piers—and are fired on from the jungle fringing the other side; but the enemy is clearly not in any strength, and we push on to the secure passage of the defile. Within the next mile we meet with six or eight more broken bridges, which all need repair before the mules can cross; but the afternoon sun is getting low, and the General sends on two companies of British infantry to seize the village of Rinchagong, where we are to pass the night, and pushing on, we emerge from the defile into a smiling valley, wherein lies our destination. Above us on the left stands the Tajwi Monastery among fields and pastures, and on the right, on high pine-clad hills, can be seen small parties of armed Tibetans watching our advance. These are the men who—commanded by Serkham-se, the Tibetan father of the Rani of Sikkim—have been holding another pass, the Donglam La, and who are now falling back to prevent us from cutting off their retreat, and by pushing on we

*More
broken
bridges.*

can at least bar their entrance into Tibet and drive them into Bhutan.

We fix bayonets and press on, the enemy racing along the hills parallel to us; there is a shot from the front, answered by another from the left, but at the turn of the road we can see the white houses of the village below us. The men double eagerly down the steep path, part swing round to the left in order to take the woods in reverse, a half company rushes down to the end of the village, and the remainder, joining hands, wade waist-deep through the torrent and sweep unopposed through the courtyards and alleys of Rinchagong.

*A lovely
valley.*

There was a rain during the night, but the morning broke fair and sunny, and the charming valley into which we had descended was at its best. We were now at a level of something under nine thousand feet above sea-level, and in an ideal climate. The Himalayas appear to act as a reef, against which the rain-clouds of the monsoon expend themselves, leaving fine weather and clear blue skies on the northern side. There was health and freshness in the pure air circulating among the low pine-clad hills of this elevated valley; the sky was cloudless, the turf beneath our feet was green and springy. Beside us—between broad and level banks—ran the Mochu River down the centre of the Chumbi Valley, its snowy waters hurrying from their source, below the glaciers of Chumulhari to mingle under the shadow of the Garo hills with the great stream of the Brahma-



MADAME CURIE ADDRESSING A MEETING OF SCIENTISTS (*Pages 1-15*)

FROM A PHOTOGRAPH

putra. Our start is not made very early, for we are going no further than Chumbi, where stands the summer palace whither we are bound: above and beyond these hills rise range upon range of mountains, while towering over all and girt about with fleecy clouds stands the white cone of Chumulhari. At the elevation at which we stand Nature seems still and lifeless; only last night and the rocks were echoing "the tumult and the shouting" while belated fugitives were hurrying across the Tibetan frontier, but here in the roof of the world is now no sound of strife, no hum of insect, no sight of living thing, and all that comes faintly to our ears is the muffled roar of the torrent rushing to join the Mochu River.

But the advance guard is now "stringing out" down the hill, and already we have invaded Tibet; the road lies clear before us, and we are piloted by Ugyen Gyatshu, who knows the way as far as Lhassa, if need be, as well as any man. Immediately below the summit of the pass we come upon a gloomy mountain tarn, whose dark waters flowing over a lip of rock swell the stream which springs from Jalep La. The men are all eager for the advance into the new country of which they have heard so much, and which has been so long denied them, and the first mile or two of the descent is soon passed over, and it is not until we reach the edge of the forest that a halt is called to enable the transport and the rear-guard to close up, when the advance is resumed with equal expedition and increased caution.

*The
advance.*

*Nearing
the
frontier.*

The road now winds among huge boulders and scattered forest trees—descending abruptly to the edge of the stream or climbing precipitously above. With every step the trees grow closer together and the undergrowth becomes denser, while now and again we meet with traces of the enemy in the still smoking embers of wayside fires and broken potsherds, where a lagging fugitive was brewing himself a brick of tea, and halts are called in two small clearings.

Our force is first divided; the transport under a strong Gurkha escort turns back in the Jalep road to a camping ground at Nyatoong, where we are to bivouac this night on our return to India or rather Independent Sikkim, while the larger portion of the invading force takes the road up the valley toward Chumbi. With every turn of the road the scenery grows prettier; where the road bends to the left is a small cluster of forsaken farm buildings, having the look of comfort and prosperity—almost of home. A little further on we cross by stepping stones a shallow brook bustling to the Mochu past a picturesque but deserted village. Across the river stands the comfortable two-storied house of the Chinese frontier-resident, an official who has been greatly disturbed by recent events, and who has spent every moment of the hours since our arrival beneath the shadow of his country's flag, which he has wagged ceaselessly before our eyes. The countryside is so quiet, and looks so peaceful, that it is difficult to believe that the fugitives of a semi-

barbarian army, 11,000 strong, have fled but yesterday along this valley. A short distance outside Chumbi we were met by a small deputation, headed by the Poorboo Dewan, a gentlemanly person occupying a high official position under the Sikkim Government. He had long been on our side and had done his best, according to his lights, to counteract the overpowering Tibetan influence at the Court of the Sikkim Raja, and he had now arrived to welcome us to Chumbi, which was soon in sight. We found the palace to be little more than a well-built house, surrounded on three sides by a number of barn-like structures, occupied by the usual army of dilapidated dependents who attach themselves to an Eastern Court. The palace itself stood close to the river, immediately facing a bridge, over which the road here passed. The valley beyond opened out, and the hills which enclosed it appeared higher and more imposing; we could see for perhaps another mile down the valley, but then the road seemed to turn sharp to the right to Phari Jong, whither this time we may not follow. Our troops filed across the bridge and piled arms in the meadow by the water's edge, while a company of British infantry quietly formed a cordon round the palace, so as to prevent anybody from entering in or going forth.

The palace.

The political officer at once instituted inquiries regarding the Sikkim Raja, who was believed to be hiding somewhere in the vicinity, and an armed party entered the palace to search for him and for incriminating

*Where is
the Sikkim
Raja?*

papers. We gained admission through a hall, freely but rather crudely frescoed with sporting scenes of tiger hunting in the jungle.

The ground floor was taken up principally with store-rooms containing rubbish and ancient weapons, so we mounted by a broad ladder—like a ship's companion—to the first story, and found ourselves at once in something like an old English country house. The windows were small, the doors of the different rooms opening from the landing were of a black wood resembling old oak, while the rooms were up and down two or three steps or round a corner, as one often finds them in old houses in England. But on entering the rooms we were at once in a strange world—half monastery, half court, and wholly Eastern. At the back of the house was a large room running the full length, and filled with the idols, masks, trumpets, prayer-wheels, and bells which appear inseparable from Buddhist worship.

We were received here by the mother of the Sikkim Raja, and she handed round small cups containing a straw-colored rather fiery liquor, tasting something like spirits of wine. She was a pleasant-featured, well-preserved old lady, dressed with considerable taste, and wearing upon her head a horseshoe-shaped structure, about twelve inches high, studded with precious stones, and hung with seed pearls. She conducted some of us to her own particular sanctum—a cheerful room with a pretty window looking out upon the river, the walls

A strange world.

hung with draperies of Chinese dragon-silks, while a half-open door gave us a glimpse of inner rooms decorated with curious carvings, painted wall-screens, and tall China vases. On the floor above the rooms were plainer, but the palace altogether presented an appearance of comfort and even luxury, although outside and within a few yards of the threshold dirt and old and horrible dust heaps were everywhere visible. The Raja was not to be found, and we had no orders further to explore the Chumbi Valley; so the force retraced its steps to Rinchagong, where a company was left to destroy the enemy's stores and to empty the gunpowder into the river. That night we bivouacked some two miles up the road, on open ground below Tajwi Monastery. Next morning we set our faces toward India, and with our departure from the sunny valley the heavy clouds settled once more over us. It was a wet and toilsome march up the steep and broken path toward Jalep, and as we neared the summit of the pass the rain was falling heavily, and men and mules slipped and fell as they struggled on. The dusk was deepening and the mists were gathering thicker as we gained the wall which crowned the Jalep La; but there were yet five miles of *Jalep La.* a mountain track between us and our camp. The scattered tents of the Tibetan army were still standing, white and ghost-like, as the soldiers swung past in the half-light; but of the men who had occupied them some lay among the bushes and boulders on the slope above

Gnatong while even the living were carrying the tale of their rout to Lhassa, "the Land of God."

[In 1904, Admiral Makaroff is drowned in blowing up of Russian battleship at Port Arthur. The King and Queen of England visit Ireland. Battle of Yalu River is followed by retirement of Russians to Liao Yang with isolation of Port Arthur. First stone of the new Campanile, Venice, is laid. King Edward visits Rome. Palace at Seoul burns. Conflagration in Toronto causes \$13,000,000 loss. Avalanche near Pragelato, Italy, buries 100 miners. Russia demands cession of Manchuria from China. British kill 2,000 Somalis in battle. Earthquake in Asiatic Turkey destroys 2,000 lives. Louisiana Purchase Exposition, St. Louis, is opened. Panama Canal and Zone are formally transferred to the United States. Texas tornadoes destroy many lives. Automobile race from Paris to Madrid is stopped by fatal accidents. Conflagration of Jersey City piers causes \$5,000,000 loss. Japanese battleship *Hatsuse* is sunk off Port Arthur. H. M. Stanley, African explorer, dies. Inaugural of Empire Day, a permanent memorial to Queen Victoria and sign of Imperial cohesion, is celebrated. Japanese are victors at Kin-chau. International Congress of the Salvation Army is held in London. Theodore Roosevelt and Charles W. Fairbanks are nominated for President and Vice-President. Alton B. Parker and Henry G. Davis are nominated by Democrats for President and Vice-

Roosevelt
nominated.

President. Erie train collision at Midvale, N. J., kills 17. Diaz is re-elected President of Mexico. Johannes Paul Kruger, President of the Transvaal Republic, dies. White Star liner *Baltic* (largest vessel in the world) starts on her first eastward voyage. Freedom of London is given to Lord Curzon of Kedleston at the Guildhall. Russian Minister of Interior von Plehve is assassinated. British Tibetan expedition enters Lhasa. Russian fleet is defeated by Japanese at Port Arthur. Tornadoes in St. Paul and Minneapolis kill 19 persons and cause \$3,000,000 loss. Korea surrenders control of her finances and foreign affairs to Japan.] *Death of Kruger.*

THE ORENBURG-TASHKENT RAILWAY

(A.D. 1905)

ANGUS HAMILTON

THE railway journey between Petersburg and Orenburg covers 1,230 miles; and between Orenburg and Tashkent the distance is 1,200 miles, the latter line having taken almost exactly four years to lay. Work began on the northern section in the autumn of 1900, and many miles of permanent way had been constructed before, in the autumn of 1901, a start was made from the south. Although the system was not opened to general traffic before the midsummer of 1905, the two sections were united in September of 1904. Originally communications between Orenburg and Tashkent were maintained by means of tarantass along the post-road, led from Aktiubinsk across the Kirghiz steppes *viâ* Orsk to Irghiz, and thence through Kazalinsk to Perovsk, where the road passed through Turkestan to run *viâ* Chimkent to Tashkent, a journey of nineteen days. In addition to the galloping *patyorka*

*Railroad
completed
in 1905.*

*Pictur-
esque
caravans.*

and *troika*—teams of five and three horses respectively—which were wont to draw vehicles on the post-road, and the more lumbering Bactrian camels, harnessed three abreast and used in the stages across the Kara Kum Desert, long and picturesque teams of camels bound for Orenburg and carrying cotton and wool from Osh and Andijan, silks from Samarkand and Khiva, tapestries from Khokand, lambs' wool, skins, and carpets from Bokhara, and dried fruits from Tashkent, annually passed in almost endless procession between Tashkent and Orenburg from June to November. Of late years, however, the Trans-Caspian Railway, commenced by Skobeleff in 1880, and gradually carried forward by Annenkoff to Samarkand, has supplanted the once flourishing traffic of this post-road, along which the local post has been for some time the sole movement. This new line does not exactly follow the old post route, but from Orenburg, which is the terminus of the railway from Samara on the Trans-Siberian system, it crosses the Ural River to Ilenk on the Ilek, a tributary of the Ural. From Ilenk the metals run *viâ* Aktiubinsk and Kazalinsk along the Syr Daria Valley *viâ* Perovski to Turkestan, and thence to its terminus at Tashkent.

*Direction
of the road.*

From Orenburg the line, four versts from the station, crosses the Ural River by an iron bridge 160 sagues (1 sagene = 7 feet) in length, running from there southward to Iletsk, a sub-district town of the Orenburg Government and 72 versts from Orenburg itself.

Here the line turns eastward, continuing for 213 versts along the right bank of the river Ilek, and crosses the river by an iron bridge 105 sagues in length. From Iletsk station a short branch line three versts in length, proceeds to the Iletsk salt-mines. Following now the left bank of the Ilek River, the line approaches, 255 versts from Orenburg, the town of Aktiubinsk, a district town in the Turhai Province. At this stage the railway crosses the watershed of the Ural, Temir, Kubele, and Embi rivers, and the line comes to the Kum Asu Pass across the Ungodjarski range 486 versts from Orenburg. The passage of the line through the mountains, extending about 26 versts, imposed a severe test upon the constructive ability of the railway pioneers. Beyond the range the line turns southward, and follows the valleys of the Bolshoi, Mali Karagandi, and the Kuldjur rivers until, 600 versts from Orenburg, the line arrives on Lake Tchelker. The line now runs across the Bolshiye and Maliye Barsuki sands, where there is abundance of underground fresh water, to the northern extremity of the Sari Chegonak inlet on the Aral Sea, where it descends at 790 versts to sea-level to move along the northeastern shore between the lakes. At 942 versts it approaches the military depot at Kazalinsk about 36 sagues above sea-level, sometimes called Fort No. 1, which has gradually lost its exclusive military character and become a leading district centre in the Syr Daria Province.

*Difficulties
met with in
construction.*

The main line keeps to the river Syr Daria running

through the steppe along the coast road to Karmakchi, or Fort No. 2, 1,108 versts from Orenburg and 53 sagues above sea-level. On leaving Karmakchi the line diverges from the post-road which, winding round a succession of lakes and marshes, runs at a distance of 50 versts from the river. The railway, however, continues its original direction, and goes straight along the watershed of the river Syr Daria and the Karauzyak, a tributary which it crosses twice by two small bridges, each constructed with two spans 60 sagues in length. The character of the whole tract of country from Karmakchi to Perovski, 138 versts, differs considerably from the region preceding it in consequence of the quantity of lakes, *ariks*, and small tributaries which afford an abundant supply of water. The low-lying ground is everywhere covered with a thick growth of reeds, while the more elevated parts, watered by the *ariks*, are well covered by crops of various kinds. The station of Perovski, 1,246 versts from Orenburg, and at an altitude of 65 sagues, is situated in flat country, one and a half versts from the settlement of Perovski, more readily recalled to students of the Russian development of this region by the name of Ak-Mechet. From here to Djulek the line returns once more to the post-road, and runs at some distance from the Syr Daria, passing between the river and the Ber-Kazan lakes at the Station Ber-Kazan. At Djulek, 1,343 versts and 74 sagues above sea-level—the name being adopted from a small adjacent village

*The
scenery
changes.*

—the line diverges from the post-road and runs direct to the village of Skobeleff, 1,367 versts to Orenburg. Skobeleff is one of those curious peasant settlements which, located in the uttermost parts of the Russian Empire, preserve in their smallest detail every characteristic of remote Russia. At such a place life savors so strongly of the Middle Ages that one scarcely heeds the purely modern significance which attaches to the Iron Horse. Barely 30 versts from Skobeleff, and situated close to the Syr Daria, there is the station of Tumen-Arik, 1,394 versts from Orenburg and 80 sagues high. For 120 versts the line now runs parallel with the post-road, and, still clinging to its direction, even where the road separates from the river, reaches Turkestan station, 1,514 versts from Orenburg, at an altitude of 103 sagues. Two and a half versts to the south lies the town of Turkestan, one of the most important towns in the Syr Daria Province, and 40 versts from the Syr Daria. The next station, Ikan, 1,543 versts, is associated with the history of the conquest of Turkestan, a famous battle having been fought about the scene where the station buildings now stand. Twenty versts north of the station, close to the post-road, stands a memorial to the Ural Cossacks, who fell there during the fight. The following station, Otrar, 1,558 versts, is imbued with the tradition derived from the existence of an enormous mound which stands amid the ruins of the old-time city of Otrar, that Timur, when his army crossed the Syr Daria, ordered his soldiers to

*Quaint
Skobeleff.*

throw a handful of earth on the ground, so that a mark to posterity should be established at the point where the river was crossed in safety.

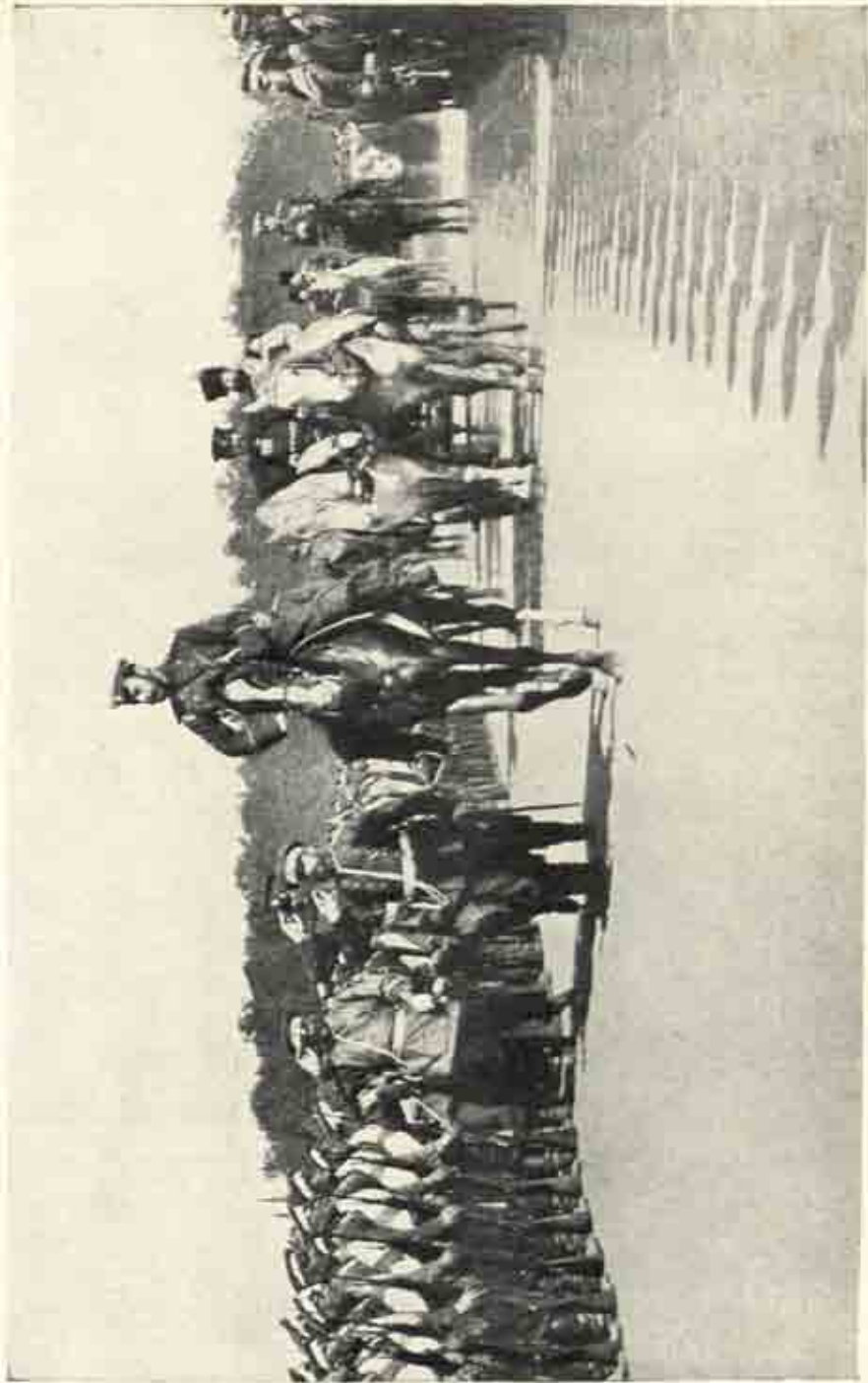
*A bountiful
oasis.*

The country in the neighborhood of Tashkent, as seen from the railway, presents the picture of a bountiful oasis. For 20 versts there is no interruption to a scene of wonderful fertility. Market gardens, smiling vineyards, and fruitful orchards, not to mention cotton-fields and corn-lands, cover the landscape. This abundance is in a measure due to careful irrigation and to the excellent system for conserving water which has been introduced. In support of it 113 specific works were completed, each of which—and the giant total includes water-pipes by the mile and innumerable aqueducts—was a component part of that scheme of irrigation by which life in Central Asia alone is made possible. Apart from the requirements of the countryside and the interests of the town and district of Tashkent, the needs of the line have been carefully studied with a view to political developments.

*The four
sections.*

In defining the local significance of the Orenburg-Tashkent Railway, the system should be divided into four sections: No. 1, from Orenburg to the Ungodjarski Mountains, about 400 versts; No. 2, from the Ungodjarski Mountains to the sands of Bolshiye-Barsuki, 400 to 560 versts; No. 3, from the sands of Bolshiye-Barsuki to Kazalinsk, 560 to 845 versts; No. 4, from Kazalinsk to Tashkent, 845 to 1,762 versts.

[Great missionary meeting is held in Boston, with Archbishop of Canterbury present. Battle of Shado (11 *Battle of Shado.* days) is fought: Japanese, 16,000 killed and wounded; Russians, 13,000 killed, 45,000 wounded. King Edward entertains Admiral Jewell and other officers of the U. S. warship *Olympia* at Buckingham Palace. Russian Baltic Squadron, under Admiral Rojestvensky, attacks the North Sea trawlers, mistaking them for Japanese torpedo boats.]



THE CZAR REVIEWING HIS TROOPS SHORTLY AFTER THE OUTBREAK OF WAR WITH JAPAN (Page 16)


FROM A PHOTOGRAPH



THE DOGGER BANK AND AFTER

(A.D. 1904)

L. C. CARR LAUGHTON

CTOBER 22.—Shortly after midnight the Russian Baltic Fleet, outward bound to the Far East, fired, for a period of about twenty minutes, on a fleet of English steam trawlers fishing near the Dogger Bank. The Russian Fleet steamed on without acknowledging its error or helping its victims in any way.

The Russian Fleet fires on trawlers.

October 24.—The news was published in the morning papers, and a violent anti-Russian outbreak began. The Continental press was inclined to lay the whole blame on Russia. At this time the British Home Fleet was at Cromarty, the Channel Fleet was at Gibraltar, the Mediterranean Fleet was in the Adriatic, and the six armored cruisers of the Cruiser Squadron were undergoing repairs in the home ports.

October 27.—Publication in England of Admiral Rojestvensky's explanation of the occurrence. News received that the four new battleships had put into Vigo.

October 28.—Refusal of the Continental press to accept Admiral Rojestvensky's explanation.

The Prime Minister at Southampton, said: "In the story of our fishermen there is much tragedy; there is no romance. In the story of the Russian admiral I don't know that there was any tragedy, but I am driven to believe that there was much romance." He also announced that there would be a Board of Trade inquiry, and an inquiry by an International Tribunal, which, however, would have nothing to do with arbitration, but would seek to fix the responsibility. Pending inquiry, Russia promised to detain part of the Baltic Fleet at Vigo, also that any person in her service found guilty should be punished. A complete apology and a promise of compensation were tendered, together with an undertaking to guard against the recurrence of such incidents.

By this time it was pretty generally stated that the crisis was at an end.

October 30.—Russian naval inquiry into the incident opened at Vigo.

November 1.—The Russian ships left Vigo. Alarm in England owing to a popular belief that this constituted a breach of agreement.

The Russians left behind one captain and three lieutenants to attend the International inquiry.

November 2.—The coroner's jury at Hull, schooled by the Treasury, found that the fishermen had been

*Tragedy
but no
romance.*

*The
inquiry.*

"killed by shots fired without warning or provocation from certain Russian war vessels."

Official announcement that the Russian ships left Vigo with the approval of the British Government. *Revulsion of public opinion.* *Revulsion of feeling.*

November 5.—The Russian Squadron which had gathered at Tangier sailed, the heavy ships going west, the lighter craft going east.

November 7.—A report from St. Petersburg that terms for the constitution of the International Tribunal had been agreed to by England and Russia, and publication of the alleged terms.

This report was false. The alleged convention did not decide as to whether the vote of a majority should be binding on the Tribunal.

November 9.—The Foreign Secretary, speaking at the Guildhall, stated the precise terms of reference to the International Tribunal, and quoted a distinct Russian assurance that the officers left behind by the Baltic Fleet were implicated in the disaster, and that all who were found guilty would be punished.

November 12.—The Russian press repudiated the statement that the officers found guilty would be punished.

November 13.—The Russian Consul at Bremen advertised, offering rewards to witnesses who could give evidence of the presence of suspicious vessels in the North Sea.

The heavy Russian ships reported to be at Dakar.

November 15.—Opening of the Board of Trade inquiry at Hull.

But to turn from the reeking byways of politics and diplomacy to the clean atmosphere of the open sea. If any good is to ensue from the present evil, it will be in virtue of the influence that this episode is bound to exercise on the future of naval warfare. But before the full benefit can be extracted from the catastrophe, there are many and serious difficulties to be faced and overcome.

In the first place, can it honestly be maintained that the Russians acted criminally in allowing their imaginations to run away with them? The contention is that their action was criminal. If so, the criminality did not lie in the actual firing, for, granting the right of a fleet in such a frame of mind to be at sea, the firing was inevitable. It is a truism of naval warfare that when torpedo attack is expected, torpedo-boats are frequently detected where none are, and imaginary no less than real boats will of necessity be fired on. The commander of the *Ting Yuen*, torpedoed at Wei-Hai-Wei in 1894, summarized the difficulties very well.

"From the beginning of the time when torpedo attacks became likely, and when we became subject to alarms, real and false, the difficulty of controlling the fire became evident—not from any disciplinary fault, but from the point of view of expediency. Who was to control the fire? No one man could, because he could

*Influence
of this
episode on
future
naval war-
fare.*

*Did the
Russians
act crimi-
nally?*

never be sure of seeing the enemy first. This means that once the alarm signals have been made, and the enemy's boats are in the neighborhood, each man will fire at anything suspicious he sees."

The point raised is really concerned with the duties of belligerents toward neutrals. This is the branch of the law which is most in need of revision, for attention hitherto has been largely concerned with the reverse of the medal—with the duties of neutrals toward belligerents; and with each successive war the duties of neutrals have been more clearly defined and have become more onerous. It is notorious that this latter branch of the subject is still very far from being in a satisfactory state, for the letter of the law and the interpretation thereof varies with the geographical position, though the spirit of it is as constant as the universe. The essence of the duty of a neutral is to do nothing which may act to the advantage of one belligerent and to the prejudice of the other. And the essence of the belligerent's duty in return is that he shall carry on the war with the least possible inconvenience to those Powers that remain neutral.

Belligerents and neutrals.

It must be admitted that in this war, if one neutral has fallen notably short of the ideal of neutrality, one belligerent has missed the ideal of belligerency by at least as much. Questions of the duties of neutrals do not largely concern the present case, although there are certain of them inextricably involved with it. But it is owing to the incubus of the unrestrained exercise of belligerent

The case of neutrals.

rights that we have this disaster, this dishonor to deplore. We have, by our acquiescence, connived at various irregularities on the part of Russia—at unjustifiable extension of the list of contraband and of the right of search. And now we have our reward. We have encouraged Russia in a belief that the rest of the world exists for the convenience of a belligerent. Yet we cry out at the inevitable result! We have sowed the hurricane and are reaping the whirlwind. The Dogger Bank disaster will not have been in vain if it succeeds in drawing such attention to the laws and limitations of warfare that similar incidents are made impossible in future.

*Inter-
national
Woman
Suffrage
League
organized.*

*Earl Grey
made
Governor-
General of
Canada.*

[In 1904, the International Woman Suffrage League is organized in Berlin with Susan B. Anthony president. Colorado mine strike and dynamite plot occurs at Cripple Creek. There are 15 killed. Submarine torpedo boat *Fulton* undergoes 12-hour test. Excursion steamer *General Slocum* (carrying 2,000) burns, New York. Japanese defeat Russians at Telissu (Wa-fang-kan). General Bobrikoff, Governor-General of Finland, is assassinated. P. and O. liner *Australia* is wrecked in Melbourne Harbor. Russians leave Liao Yang and retire toward Mukden. Earl Grey is made Governor-General of Canada. *Minnesota*, largest steamship ever built in America, is launched. Col. Younghusband, head of the British mission, signs treaty with Tibet. *Discovery* arrives at Spithead with Commander Scott and National Ant-

arctic Expedition. Peter of Servia is crowned. Disastrous floods occur in Colorado and New Mexico. Collision on Missouri Pacific Railroad near Warrensburg, Mo., kills 30 persons. Battleship *Georgia* is launched. President Roosevelt invites Powers to a peace conference. New York subway is opened. Franco-American arbitration treaty is signed in Washington. War College is opened in Washington. Theodore Roosevelt is elected President. Battleship *New Jersey* is launched. American-German arbitration treaty is signed. Louisiana Purchase Exposition closes. American White Cross First Aid Society is organized. Armored cruiser *Tennessee* is launched. There are revolutionary demonstrations at St. Petersburg. Anglo-American arbitration treaty is signed. Italian-American arbitration treaty is signed. The *Gjøa* expedition returns.]

*Roosevelt
elected
President.*

THE CONQUEST OF THE NORTH- WEST PASSAGE

(A.D. 1904)

CAPTAIN ROALD AMUNDSEN

THE sloop *Gjøa* registers forty-six tons and measures seventy-three feet. She has a beam of twenty feet, and draws, when laden, ten feet of water. She was not built specially for Arctic traffic, but has been strengthened subsequently with an ice-sheathing of two-inch oak planks, cross beams, knees, and everything else that can help to render resistance to the ice. She is equipped with a petroleum motor of thirteen horsepower, by the help of which she is able to reach a speed of three knots in smooth water. Thus the principal motive power is not derived from the motor, which is meant for use only in calm weather. *Gjøa* relies chiefly on her sails, and, like all vessels of her type, she does splendidly. *The Gjøa*

The aim of the expedition was to force its way into the region about the earth's magnetic North Pole, and to make observations at a fixed station during a pro- *The aim of the expedition.*

tracted period of time. For this purpose the expedition was excellently furnished with magnetic instruments. The expedition numbers seven members. Second in command is Lieutenant Godfred Hansen of the Danish Navy. All the others are Norwegians.

We sailed from Christiania during the night between June 16 and 17, 1903. It took us a good deal of time to make Godhaven, on Disco Island, because we had a contrary wind all the way. But finally we reached that place in the last days of July. Our purpose in calling there was to establish a magnetic station and to ship more dogs for the sledges. From Christiania we brought with us six dogs—dogs that had taken part in the second *Fram* expedition. At Dalrymple Rock, on the north-western coast of Greenland, we had to stop to take on board the provisions deposited there for us by two Scottish whaling vessels.

We reached Beechy Island on August 22, and anchored off it to take a series of magnetic observations, which were to be decisive for the remainder of our journey. From this station we were to find the location of the magnetic pole, and thus to ascertain what way we would have to take. Our observations showed the pole to be to the southward, and in that direction we sailed, after having lifted anchor on August 24, our immediate goal being Peel Sound. Off Prescott Island in Peel Sound the compass refused to render further service, and, like our forefathers, we had to be satisfied

*Godhaven
reached.*

*Compass
refuses to
act and
stars hide
under mist.*

with the guidance of the heavenly bodies. But when these, too, refuse their assistance, hiding themselves behind an impenetrable veil of mist, then it is not easy to be a seafaring man.

Without encountering any particularly troublesome opposition by the ice, we wriggled our way southward in the shore water along the west coast of Boothia Felix. On September 9 we hove to in Pettersen Bay, on the southeastern coast of King William Land, and dropped anchor outside a little snug harbor. Gjõa Harbor, which was to be our resting-place for nearly two years, is splendidly protected. The approach to it is very narrow—being only a few yards wider than our boat—and opens toward the south. Thus the inner harbor is completely closed. The magnetic observations we took on the following day proved that we could not have chosen a better spot for our station.

*Advantages of
Gjõa
Harbor.*

A laborious period ensued. We had to carry all our provisions on shore to protect them against moisture, and to get more room on board the ship. This work was completed by September 17, and we were confronted with the task of erecting the necessary buildings. The materials for these were obtained from our provision boxes. All the boxes were double, consisting of an inner tin chest surrounded by a wooden box. The boxes were all of the same size and nailed together with copper nails, to prevent them from influencing the magnetic instruments. The tin chests were stripped of their wooden

*Buildings
are
erected.*

covering. Then we filled the wooden boxes with sand and used them for walls. Two buildings were erected—one for the instruments used to measure the magnetic variations, and the other as a dwelling for two members of the expedition. Our observations of various kinds were begun on November 2.

*First visit
of Eskimos.*

The first visit of Eskimos occurred on one of the last days of October. They belonged to the Ogluli tribe, which has its hunting grounds along Simpson Strait, on the northern coast of the American continent. This tribe came in contact with the Schwatka expedition in 1880, but since then had had no dealings with white men. We had a good deal to do with the tribe, and became good friends with them all. But we found our best friends among the Netchjilli tribe, which we encountered later on.

*Prepara-
tions for
the winter.*

There was an abundance of game during the first year. Big herds of reindeer appeared in every direction, and single animals ventured up to the ship. We killed one hundred reindeer in all, to get food for ourselves and our dogs, but we could easily have killed twice as many had we cared to do so. We caught a good deal of grouse also. The harbor froze the first days in October, and the necessary preparations to withstand the winter were made as soon as our other duties permitted it. Sails were spread over the ship, and the snow was banked against her sides. Double windows were put in, a system of ventilation was arranged, and many little things were

done that helped to make the life on board both comfortable and pleasant. Thus we were able to look forward with equanimity to the famous polar night. We had a good harbor, good houses, a good ship, and an abundance of fresh food. To this must be added that, on account of our location at the low latitude of $68^{\circ} 37' N.$, we did not experience any darkness worth speaking of. We had planned a sledge tour to investigate the magnetic conditions along the west coast of Boothia Felix in the spring. However, seven of our best dogs had died in the course of the winter, thus leaving us very poorly equipped in this line. But we had to do what we could with the surviving ones. Four of us departed on March 1, 1904, to establish a depot for the main expedition, which was to start about the beginning of April. On this trip we recorded the lowest temperature— 79° Fahrenheit below zero. But as there was no wind, the cold was not much noticed. *We established a depot.*

While occupied with the task of depositing the provisions we met the Netchjilli Eskimos. One morning, as we were working our way along the east coast of King William Land with sledges and dogs, a human figure became suddenly visible on the pack-ice. It was joined by several others, and soon some thirty Eskimos, all men, had gathered in a group about 100 steps away from us. It was apparent that they felt uncertain how to regard us. We were the first to make overtures, approaching them with the cry "Manik-tu-mi." It was evi- *"Manik-tu-mi."*

dent that this had a reassuring effect, and soon they were eagerly replying to our greetings. We had, during the winter, learned a goodly number of words from our friends, the Oglulies, so that on this occasion we were able to make ourselves pretty well understood.

They told us that their snow huts were on the other side of the pack-ice, not far away. I decided to accompany them in order to become acquainted with their tribe, which seemed to be of a very friendly disposition. It was a merry, boisterous procession that made its way across the ice. They thought us very funny, and we repaid their merriment and laughter in the same coin. At the time we met them, they were on their way to their seal grounds. Most of them had dogs. All the dogs were now harnessed to our two sledges—a sign of hospitality—and with each sledge drawn by twenty dogs we made fine time. The dogs did not get along quite as well as their masters, and a thundering battle broke out every now and then. After traveling a couple of hours, we reached their huts. These numbered sixteen and stood far out on the ice. To begin with, the fair sex showed themselves very timid, but after a while they were led on by an aged belle who headed them in a long line past us. As they passed us, each one uttered a brief grunt which apparently was meant as a welcome. After this parade they disappeared, one and all, into their respective huts to recuperate from the exertions. Only three of the oldest members of the tribe had seen white men

We "astonish the natives."

—or “Kabluna”—before. This had happened at a place they called Eivili, which, as I learned later, was in the vicinity of Repulse Bay, in the northwestern part of Hudson Bay. This tribe—the Netchjilli Eskimos—became our fast friends and saw with sorrowful hearts our departure from King William Land. All were very well dressed in fine new clothes made out of reindeer skins. All wore the typical native costume, with long tail-pieces on their coats that bore a good deal of resemblance to full-dress coats. The next day we started out again, and were then accompanied by an Eskimo.

One our way back we ran across their colony again, and then most of them decided to follow us, that they might examine the wonder which none of them had beheld before—a ship. The home trip proved exhilarating in company with those merry denizens of the Far North. To our comrades on board it was a source of great surprise and much enjoyment to witness the approach of the whole colony. To see new faces meant a wonderful variation in their monotonous existence. Soon after their arrival, the Eskimos began to build their snow huts, and in a short time *Gjøa* was surrounded by an Eskimo village. Frequent visits on both sides followed. They wanted to see everything we possessed, and we were much taken with their pretty and comfortable clothes, of which we were anxious to get a stock. This did not prove difficult. In exchange for wood and iron we could have anything they had. Empty tin boxes were

*The natives
see a ship
for the
first time.*

*Presents
given to the
Eskimos.*

wholly worthless to us. But they were keenly desired by our friends. And their value was enhanced considerably if they were polished, and had a handle attached to them. On this occasion I presented a rifle and some ammunition to one of their members who had displayed marked hospitality during our stay with them on the ice. His joy on the receipt of this unexpected gift was indescribable, but the result was that everybody wanted to possess a rifle. As the transition from empty tin boxes to guns and cartridges seemed a little violent to me, I tried to make them understand what the matter meant. But it took me several days to make them grasp the fact that our ship was not laden with rifles.

*A difficult
spot.*

Lieutenant Hansen and Helmer Hansen started during August in a boat to examine the conditions in Simpson Strait, and particularly in the region around Eta Island, which spot marks the narrowest part of the passage to the westward. The plan of the expedition—submitted to the Norwegian Geographical Society at Christiania—provided that, after the conclusion of our magnetic observations, we were to turn westward instead of going back east. The ground for this was that the ice conditions along the west coast of Boothia Felix were regarded as extremely troublesome. My observations since then have caused me to think it impossible to point out any one spot as being more difficult than any other in that region.

The summer had been raw and cold, and the fall

came early. The reindeer, which the year before had shown themselves in such numbers, seemed this fall to shun the land. We succeeded in killing only thirty animals. The Eskimos had better luck while hunting on the coast of North America, and during the winter they brought us a considerable quantity of meat. And from them we received also large stores of fish. Salmon, trout, codfish, and whitefish were furnished us in quantities. Thus we had plenty of fresh food during the second winter as well.

*Provisions
for the sec-
ond winter.*

The Eskimos, who had been scattered about their different hunting grounds, began to reappear near the ship in October, and helped to make our existence a little livelier. But this time we were honored with their company much longer than we cared for it. They showed no signs of breaking up until February, 1905. They had then depleted their stock of provisions so that they had to seek new hunting grounds. Once more a Christmas passed by and a new year arrived. Light days began to prevail, and in their wake followed a lot of work—preparations for an impending sledge expedition. This was started on April 2. It was headed by Lieutenant Hansen, who had with him Peder Ristvedt. The object of the trip was to chart the unknown eastern coast of Victoria Land.

*A sledge
expedition
planned.*

We were kept very busy on board during their absence. Everything was to be made ready for our departure, and the vessel had to be overhauled. The houses

*Prepara-
tions for
departure.*

erected on shore were the first to go. They were pulled down in the latter part of May and the early part of June. The boxes were carried down to the storehouse, and what remained of provisions was repacked in wooden boxes and taken on board. All the instruments had to be taken down, cleaned, and packed away.

In the beginning of June numerous groups of Eskimos returned from their seal hunting and raised their tents in our immediate proximity. They were aware that we would depart in a short time, and that many objects of great value to them would be left behind. Many interesting scenes were enacted in those days. We had collected in one mass fifty empty petroleum barrels, a large number of wooden boxes, much planking, and quantities of other things. All this material was divided into twelve equal piles, to be divided among those who had done most to earn it. To describe the joy displayed by the twelve lucky individuals would be difficult indeed. They had, all at once, been made rich. I doubt very much that any multi-millionaire ever felt so wealthy as did these men after the distribution of our gifts. But even funnier were the scenes accompanying the handing of our presents to the fair sex. I had in advance gathered all the tin cans, probably numbering several hundred, into a big pile. All the ladies were invited for a certain hour—when the sun stood in the west, which generally marks the ending of the day's toil. At the fixed time they appeared, and I led them to the spot where the

*Tin cans
for the fair
sex.*

great event was to take place. Having arranged them in a ring close about the pile of cans, I told them that, when I gave the sign, they might carry off as many cans as they could lay hold of. No sooner was the sign given than all of them—old and young alike—hurled themselves headlong into the pile. All one could see after that was a tangle of arms and legs in the midst of a rain of tin cans, out of which rose wild yells and screams. When the worst part of the tussle was over, each one of the participants arranged her booty and tugged it over to her tent amid much laughter and rejoicing.

Lieutenant Hansen and Sergeant Ristvedt returned with the sledges on June 24. The lieutenant had succeeded in charting the east coast of Victoria Land as far north as latitude $72^{\circ} 10'$. He had found many unknown islands in the sea between King William Land, Victoria Land, and the American coast. All these had been entered on the map. The depot at Cape Crozier had been destroyed by bears, but the travelers were fortunate enough to run across game along their entire route—reindeer, bears, seals, and hares. At Lind Island, off the southeastern point of Victoria Land, they fell in with a lot of Kiilnermiun Eskimos from the Coppermine River. These showed themselves as friendly as the other tribes.

Discoveries of Hansen and Ristvedt.

The ice left Gjõa Harbor as early as July, but in Simpson Strait it lay unbroken long afterward. It was especially rough between Todd Island and Point Richardson

on the American coast. On August 12 it seemed at last as if it would begin to move. We made our final preparations, and that night everything was ready for the start. *Gjøa* lifted anchor at three o'clock on the morning of August 13, and made her way out of *Gjøa* Harbor. Our dear Eskimo friends stood on the shore for a long time and waved their last farewells to us.

Through fog and sleet we sounded our way to Booth Strait along King William Land, where we had to anchor under cover of a small rock. It cleared in the afternoon, and we were able to get under way once more. The open channel between the Todd Islands and the ice-pack was not very wide—just so wide, in fact, that we were able to slip through. Beyond this narrow channel we found a large sheet of open water. At five o'clock on the afternoon of August 14 we dropped anchor off Kamiglu, a few miles to the east of Eta Island. A number of our Eskimo friends had settled there for their summer hunt. After we had obtained fresh meat from them and taken aboard a young Eskimo boy who wanted to go with us, we left the spot at 10 A. M. As the northern Eta Sound had proved itself impassable, it remained only to try the southern passage. This is three-quarters of a mile wide and studded with reefs. We managed to slip through and get out on the other side. The next doubtful stretch was between the islands discovered by Lieutenant Hansen in the spring. We were forced to seek a way right through the group because

*Farewell to
Gjøa
Harbor.*

*A difficult
journey.*

the ice lay solid between them and the American coast. The passage was full of rocks and shoals, and anything but agreeable. We found the Victoria Channel full of ice, but with just enough room left for us to squeeze through. Further to the west we found the sea almost free from ice.

The entrance to Dolphin and Union Straits was not easy to find, because dangerous reefs were scattered between Lambert Island, Douglas Island, and the American continent. But we struck a clear road after some search. It looked favorable to the west. On August 25 we caught sight of the first sail we had met on that side. It was the whaling schooner *Charles Hansson*, of San Francisco, under Captain McKenna. From him we obtained our first news of the civilized world. What interested us in particular was the difference between Norway and Sweden. It caused me to fix my mind on a trip to the nearest telegraph station for the purpose of learning just how matters stood. We did not tarry long on board the *Charles Hansson*. Having dined with the charming captain and received a welcome present of onions and fresh potatoes, we returned to the ship and resumed our course.

*News from
the great
world.*

The first difficulties with the ice were met at Cape Bathurst. The ice was packed against the land and shut off all progress. We were detained two days at that spot. A southeastern wind pushed the ice away from the shore and opened a passage for us. On our way westward we

noticed several whalers. We were hailed by the *Alexander* and the *Bowhead*, Captains Tilton and Cook, who offered us assistance if we should need it. This happened a little to the west of Hooper Island. On September 2 we tied up along the ground ice off Cape Sabine. The wind was against us and the lane along the shore was very narrow, so that we could make no headway. We started anew next day, but were stopped again by dense ice at King Strait. Once more we tied up to the ground ice. We were no longer quite so lonesome as we had been. On the shore of King Strait we found the stranded whaling schooner *Bonanza* of San Francisco. Two of its crew and some Eskimos lived near it to guard the provisions left behind. Only a few days passed before we were compelled to admit that we were shut in for a third winter. The preparations for this, the last, winter, were begun.

Preparations for the third winter.

Wood, which we were wholly lacking before, was now found in great quantities on shore. Masses of drift-wood are carried down the Mackenzie River yearly, and are then forced ashore by sea and ice. With logs thus found we erected a fine cabin, in which five of our members are now living. It holds kitchen and dining-room for all the members of the expedition besides. Two men remain on board to look after and guard the ship. The instruments of observation were set up again without delay, and soon everything was moving in the old ruts. During the last part of September I went to Herschel

Island and visited the whalers stuck fast in the ice there. I was cordially received and spent several pleasant days with them.

The expedition which was to carry mail for the imprisoned vessels started on October 24. By the obligingness of the masters, I was enabled to accompany this expedition and to carry forward the mail of the *Gjöa*. We chose the shortest road across the mountains and reached Fort Yukon on November 20. I had hoped to find a telegraph station there, but no—I had to wander two hundred and fifty miles further to the south, to Eagle City, to find the first telegraph key. I reached here on December 5, after having traversed in all a distance of about seven hundred miles.

The mail service.

A long journey.

[In 1904, the capitulation of Port Arthur is agreed upon. Gen. Nogi and Gen. Stössel meet outside Port Arthur after capitulation. Russian garrison leaves Port Arthur. A quarter of a million tons of cliff fall near Dover. Japanese make triumphal entry into Port Arthur.]

THE SIEGE OF PORT ARTHUR

(A.D. 1905)

E. ST. G. HOLBROOK

BY the first of November the Japanese had captured the whole of the advanced works on the north and northeast fronts, and though they failed to capture any of the permanent works, they had brought up their infantry almost to the main line of the Russian defences.

*Advance
of the
Japanese.*

The line of investment now extended from Yankiatun on Pigeon Bay on the west, through Panlungshan to Yeanchang on Takhe Bay on the east, *i. e.*, it had been drawn to within five miles of the harbor. Fock still held Liautieshan on the west, and the northern forts had yet to be won.

Nogi now decided that it was necessary, before proceeding further, to possess the Namaokayama ridge and 203 Metre Hill to get a complete command of the restricted anchorage of the harbor, so that the long-range fire, which had hitherto been more or less random, might be more accurately directed.

Five heroic attempts were made to capture the East Kikwan Fort, the whole of the northern ditch of which had been filled with flaming pits. Attack and counter-attack succeeded one another in quick succession, and the crest was repeatedly taken and retaken; finally, however, the Japanese effected a lodgment which they managed to retain. The fighting had been carried on with the greatest fury, and the ramparts were covered with corpses, which were burned and charred past recognition.

The attack on Shungshushan had met with some measure of success; the Japanese had captured the places of the adjoining works to the east.

The struggle for 203 Metre Hill had been most desperate and had lasted for five days. Two regiments attacked Namaokayama in close column, armed with hand-grenades, and successfully stormed the ridge. The following day 203 Metre Hill was attacked, and a lodgment successfully effected on the southwestern face. On the 29th the Russians made a fierce counter-attack, which was to a great extent successful, but on the 30th the Japanese renewed the attack from the southwest, and, after continuous fighting from daybreak, the opportune arrival of reinforcements at 16 o'clock enabled them to make one final effort, a simultaneous attack being delivered on the southeastern angle; a hand-to-hand combat ensued, with bayonet, clubbed rifle, and hand-grenade, and by 20 o'clock the whole fortress had been carried.

*Success
of the
Japanese.*

The great fort, the capture of which had for months been the object of Nogi's main efforts, had at last fallen; the Japanese had penetrated the Russian main line of defences; there was no permanent second line which could be obstinately held after the first had been taken, and the fate of the fortress was practically sealed. *Fall of the great fort.*

"The breach once made, the equilibrium is disturbed, all the rest becomes useless, and the fortress is taken" (Napoleon).

General Kondratenko, the famous engineer and skillful leader, whose noble self-denial and single-minded devotion to country had endeared him to all ranks, had perished, killed by a bursting shell. His loss was undoubtedly deeply deplored, but there is no authentic evidence to confirm the statements of the press that his death had any appreciable effect on the conduct of the defence.

But the Japanese shells were searching every part of the city and harbor; the garrison was daily becoming weaker in numbers and health; 17,000 were in hospital, and many who could manage to hold a rifle were crippled from scurvy and rheumatism; in short the men were dead beat, they could not move, they slept standing; the commanders could give orders, but the troops were totally incapable of execution; and there is no doubt that ammunition for the guns remaining fit for service had run very short; the besieged were at their

last gasp, and surrender was now only a question of hours.

On the 31st of December a mine was exploded under Shungshushan, the parapet was blown up, and, after a fierce assault of one hour, the Japanese captured the entire fort at 10 o'clock. They gallantly rescued a number of the defenders who had been buried under the *débris* of the rampart. The same evening they destroyed the old Chinese *enceinte* in front of East Panlungshan; they occupied the fort the following morning.

New Year's Day saw the Japanese in possession of Fort "H," and the heights south of Husanyangtan, west of Wangtai.

The rapid fall of one work after another proved to the gallant garrison that their heroic resistance had reached its limits and the end had come. Stössel, agreeably to the Russian regulations for a commander in straits, summoned a Council of War, and it was decided to capitulate.

Nogi received the Russian proposals at 21 o'clock on the 1st of January, and on the following morning cabled to Tokio that he had accepted the terms.

The negotiations between the respective delegates were signed at 12 o'clock on the 20th; they provided that the whole fortress, ships, arms, ammunition, military buildings, material, and other property of the Russian Government should be surrendered, and that should it be found that any of these had been destroyed subsequent

*Stössel
summons a
Council of
War.*

to the signing of the capitulation, it should be considered annulled, and full liberty of action in such case reserved to Japan. All plans of forts, mines, etc., were to be given up. Soldiers, sailors, volunteers, and other officials were to be constituted prisoners of war; but in consideration of their brave defence, naval and military officers and civilians attached to the services were to be allowed to retain their arms, and given the option of returning to Russia on parole, or being sent to Japan as prisoners of war.

Negotiations for peace.

At the beginning of the siege the total number of soldiers, sailors, and civilians at Port Arthur exceeded 55,000 souls. Ten thousand died of wounds or sickness during the investment; 875 officers (including 5 admirals and 8 generals) and 23,500 rank and file, etc., surrendered, and 17,000 sick and wounded remained in hospital on the capitulation of the fortress.

Population of Port Arthur.

General Stössel, Barmelemm, Ries, Nadien, Kostchenko, Admirals Grigorovitch, and Prince Ukhtomsku, and 434 other officers and 1,100 dockyard officials, gave their parole; the remainder of the prisoners were sent to Japan and Chifu. The prizes of war included the impregnable forts of Antzushan and Itzushan, and 57 other defensive works, 546 guns (54 large, 149 medium, and 343 small calibre), 80,000 rounds of ammunition, quantities of powder, cartridges, etc., 35,000 rifles, 4 battle-ships, 2 cruisers, 14 gunboats, and 50 smaller vessels.

Agreeably to the terms of capitulation, the garrison

marched out with the honors of war on the 5th and the victors marched into Port Arthur on the 8th of January, 1905.

Thus concluded a military drama, which, for the valor of the achievements of the victors and the heroism and devotion of the vanquished, stands unparalleled in the annals of war. The only instance in military history, the conditions of which may be considered to bear any resemblance to those of Port Arthur, is the siege of Dantzic in 1813, when General Rapp, with 14,000 men, held out against a Russo-Prussian army of 35,000 investing the town by land and an English fleet blockading it from the sea. In point of duration only does the investment of the Russian fortress compare unfavorably with other sieges on record. In the American Civil War, Richmond held out for 1,485 days, or over four years; Sebastopol was besieged from the 9th of October, 1854, to the 8th of September, 1855; and in the Turko-Russian War in 1854, 15,000 Turks, under the English General Williams, held Kars against 50,000 Russians for 163 days, when starvation stared them in the face and forced them to surrender. The siege of Port Arthur lasted only 130 days in all, although on the date of surrender 232 days had elapsed since the fortress was isolated by the Japanese on the 13th of May, 1904.

[In 1905, assassination of the Czar is attempted during the blessing of the Neva. General engagement of the

*Compared
to siege of
Dantzic.*

*Other
famous
sieges.*

Japanese and Russian armies takes place on the Sha-Ho. A balloon trip accomplished from London to Paris in six hours. Grand Duke Sergius of Russia is blown to pieces by a bomb in Moscow. There is a stormy meeting of students in St. Petersburg. Piercing of Simplon Tunnel is completed.]

*Grand
Duke Ser-
gius assas-
sinated.*



SCENE AT PORT ARTHUR DURING THE RUSSO-JAPANESE WAR (*Pages 65-70*)

FROM A PHOTOGRAPH



THE SIMPLON TUNNEL

(A.D. 1905)

H. G. ARCHER

THE extraordinary length of the Simplon tunnel is accounted for by the fact that it pursues its subterraneous course at a much lower altitude above the sea-level than any of its rivals. For example, the Arlberg tunnel attains an altitude of 4,300 feet, the Mont Cenis has its summit only two feet lower than the Arlberg, and the St. Gothard climbs up to 3,788 feet. On the other hand, the Simplon, at its highest point, is only 2,310 feet above sea-level. Consequently, the Arlberg, Mont Cenis and St. Gothard tunnels all possess bad gradients; those of the Mont Cenis being the severest, where the approaches are as stiff as one in 33, but the severest gradient on the Simplon Railway, which is the name given to the tunnel, and its approaches connecting with existing lines on each side, does not exceed one in 40, and that on the Italian frontier only.

Length of the Simplon tunnel.

The convention between Switzerland and Italy for the construction of the Simplon Railway, at an estimated

Cost of the tunnel.

cost of £2,800,000, was signed at Berne, on November 25, 1895, when the necessary subventions were guaranteed on both sides. This sum was increased by £340,000. It was early determined to construct the tunnel on a novel principle, namely, instead of having one tunnel to accommodate an "up" and a "down" track, to have two separate tunnels, one for each track, running parallel to one another, and placed 58 feet apart, axis from axis, the two tunnels to be interconnected at stated intervals by means of transverse passages.

The contract for the construction of the colossal undertaking was taken up by a single firm, Brandt, Brandau and Company, of Hamburg, who bound themselves to complete the first single track tunnel, the parallel heading, and the approaches on either side, within five and one-half years' time from the date of commencement. However, the date for completing the construction of the works was extended to April 30, 1905. Work was begun on August 15, 1898, when the guide headings on both Swiss and Italian sides of the Alps were struck.

Now to explain the lie of the tunnel. The route selected keeps to the northeast of the celebrated road over the Simplon Pass, 41¼ miles in length, which was constructed by order of Napoleon in 1800-1806, and when completed was the wonder of the times, while it still deserves to rank as one of the great engineering achievements of the world. The Swiss portal is in the Rhone

*The lie of
the tunnel.*

Valley, and is situated nearly two miles due east from the old-world town of Brigue, which is the present terminus of the Jura-Simplon Railway from Lausanne, $90\frac{3}{4}$ miles distant. The Italian portal is at a village named Iselle, $11\frac{1}{2}$ miles north from the town of Domo d'Ossola, which is the present terminus of the Mediterranean Railway, connecting with Milan. As might be expected, the great undertaking has caused what are practically new manufacturing towns to spring up in the neighborhood of both portals.

With the exception of two short curves, one at either entrance, the long perforation runs as straight as a die, viz., for a distance of 11.9 miles. Commencing from the Swiss portal, the tunnel ascends for a distance of 10,004 yds. (at the grade of one in 500) to the summit of 2,310 feet above sea-level. The track is then level for 546 yards, after which it descends for 11,030 yards (at the grade of one in 141) to the Italian portal.

It is no exaggeration to state that never has a great engineering undertaking had all its plans so carefully thought out beforehand as the Simplon Railway. One of the principal subjects that engaged the attention of the projectors was the welfare of their *employés*. It was resolved that no such happy-go-lucky state of affairs should be allowed as was permitted to prevail during the construction of the St. Gothard, which resulted in the loss of 600 lives from "tunnel worm," pneumonia, explosion, and railway accident.

*Welfare of
the em-
ployés
considered.*

The objective is Piacenza, forty-three miles southeast of Milan; for Piacenza, where two great lines of Italian railways meet, is the key of Northern Italy as far as railway communication is concerned. The distance from Calais to Piacenza should be then 743 miles, instead of 790 miles by the Mont Cenis and 730 miles by the St. Gothard. The last-named route, therefore, will still be a few miles shorter than the Simplon, but this advantage will be discounted by the superior conditions of level of the Simplon Railway. However, the Simplon route is to be shortened by the construction of new approaches on the French side, for Frenchmen are looking to the tunnel to win back for them much of the international through traffic to Switzerland and Italy which they have lost since the opening of the St. Gothard tunnel in 1883.

*Simplon
route to be
shortened.*

[In 1905, the Czar issues an Imperial Manifesto of a reactionary character and afterwards a rescript promising a Legislative Assembly for Russia. A general strike is proclaimed in St. Petersburg. President Theodore Roosevelt is inaugurated. Russians are forced to evacuate Manchun Tan and abandon Kan-tu-ling passes. North Sea incident indemnity of £65,000 is paid by Russia. Capture of Mukden is announced officially in Tokio.]

BATTLE OF MUKDEN

(A.D. 1905)

E. ST. G. HOLBROOK

THE devoted heroism of the Japanese could make no headway against the dogged, obstinate resistance of the Russians, and in the evening the Kaotuling and Wanyuputzu were still in the latters' hands. Nodzu was still pressing Bilderling north of the Shaho, and on the east and west of the railway the Russians had been driven on to their main defences. Meanwhile Kuropatkin had started off his impedimenta for the north, and transport-trains and carts were leaving Mukden in a long continuous procession. Oku was pressing determinedly forward from the low-lying fields of the Sinkaiho, the affluent of the Hunho, against the defences covering the railway. Nogi, on the left, had occupied Tashihchiao on the road from Hsinmintun, ten miles northwest of Mukden. Finding, however, he could make no further headway, he dispatched his right column north to outflank the Russian second line. This turning column marched from right to left in rear of

*The dogged
resistance
of the
Russians.*

the other two columns of the army and within eight hundred yards of the enemy.

*Movements
of the
Japanese.*

The Japanese left wing, since the 28th of February, had been pushing home attacks amid heavy snowstorms against the most tremendous odds; with star shells and searchlights illuminating every movement, they carried by night at the point of the bayonet, despite the superb and magnificent resistance of the Russians, redoubts defended by barbed-wire entanglements and bristling with machine-guns and shelter-trenches provided with overhead cover, and cleverly arranged to sweep all approaches with cross and converging fire; the inspiring dash and enthusiasm with which they entered the enemy's works was verily worth one's whole life to see. The Russians began to slowly retreat north.

Meanwhile, in accordance with the Russian Commander-in-chief's orders, reinforcements had arrived from Linevitch to support the hardly pressed Kaulbars, but the troops, after some forty miles' march without food and rest, were done up, and were of but very little fighting value. At 18.30 o'clock, Kuropatkin, leading his right wing in person with all the men he could scrape together, delivered a determined counter-attack, covered by a furious artillery bombardment, from the north and northwest of Mukden. His object was to force his way in between the armies of Nogi and Oku, who were continuing their wide turning movement, bearing down hard on the Russian right. But he was doomed to failure.

*Kuropat-
kin's plan.*

He could make no impression whatsoever on the serried Japanese lines. All he could do was to retire slowly, and obstinately hold his second line of defences to cover the continued retirement of his heavy train. In the evening he wired to St. Petersburg: "The front of Mukden is calm."

On the 6th, in the Hsingchingting district, the Russians were still holding their own behind row after row of almost impregnable fortifications. They made several counter-attacks from Tita, twenty miles southeast of Fushun, but on each occasion were repulsed with heavy loss. In the right centre the Japanese had made a slight advance on Fushun. In the afternoon they seized Paitzoukou, six miles south of Machuntan, driving the enemy to Toutaïkou (two miles southwest of Machuntan), and succeeded in occupying the latter position at 20 o'clock.

In the left centre fighting had been most sanguinary: Meyendorf's Army Corps at Kaotuling had repulsed thirty-two attacks during the last two nights with frightful carnage, and the Russians were still in possession of that pass and Kantolishan.

Thus, in the eastern zone, Linevitch had only been forced back some eighteen miles in ten days' fighting, and the Russians still held the line Tita-Machuntan-Kaotuling strongly entrenched. But it was not Oyama's plan to roll up the enemy in this direction: all he wanted to do at present was to hold up Kuropatkin's left wing

*The
Russians
hold
Kaotuling.*

to prevent Linevitch from sending reinforcements to the western field of battle.

In the district east of the railway the Japanese had seized Hanchenpu; they had firmly established themselves at Machiapu on the west of the line, and had thus turned the Mukden Hunho defences and Bilderling's stronghold on Putiloff Hill.

But the principal struggle had been raging on the extreme west, where Kaulbars up to the present had successfully defended the railway.

Oku made constant attacks on the enemy's positions on the line Shatotzu-Yangshihtun-Likuantun, and hand-to-hand fighting with bayonet and hand-grenade had been proceeding at intervals for the last eighteen hours without advantage to either side. But finally Nogi's Corps Artillery advanced to decisive range, and enabled the Japanese to gain the foremost village Zookiatun; by night he had reached the line.

Tashihchiao-Pingloupou.—A division of Russians with sixty-four guns had attacked Nogi's columns at Tashihchiao, but had been driven back to Mukden, with heavy loss.

*Mukden
shelled.*

The Japanese shelled Mukden from the southwest, west, and northwest, but made no determined attempt to take the town.

On the 7th, in the western zone, Nogi, screened by his and Oku's cavalry, extended his left column still further north from Pingloupou, and by night it had oc-

cupied Sanchiatu and Tuchengtzu. The Russians delivered seven fierce and resolute counter-attacks against the Japanese from the line Likuantun-Yangshihtun, but were repulsed with heavy loss. On the Shaho, east of the railway Putiloff Hill had been turned and the Russians showed signs of wavering. Nodzu, concentrating his troops in the evening, delivered a general attack at midnight, and Bilderling was driven back to his second line of defence on the Hunho-Wangtajentun (Wankiatun)-Yangshutientzu (Hunhopu); both inclusive. Kuroki was gradually forcing his way nearer Fushun in the right centre. In the eastern zone, Kawamura's right column occupied Huaijen, forty miles southeast of Hsingchingting.

*Movements
of the
Japanese.*

Early on the morning of the 8th the Russians, their right wing turned, their centre pierced, and their left flank hard pressed, began to retire north, and the Japanese followed closely in a hard and vigorous pursuit. They heavily shelled the retreating enemy, but a violent dust-storm greatly interfered with the laying of the Japanese gunners. At 8 o'clock Kuroki's right wing, after eleven days' hard fighting, had occupied Machuntan, which commands the Fushun Valley, and is the key of the Mukden position. Nodzu had driven back Bilderling in the most resolute manner, when Kuroki's left wing, by a skillful manœuvre, crossed the Hunho, north of Lunho, and seized the line Chiusan-Fuling, thus driving in a wedge between the Russian centre and left, and cut-

ting off Linevitch and Rennenkampf from the rest of Kuropatkin's forces.

Round Mukden the Russians were still holding out, fighting obstinately.

Nogi had occupied Hsiaoचितun. Oyama ordered him to extend further north, and then to wheel east to try and effect a junction with Kuroki, who was pressing forward from the east and driving the Russians against him. Should these operations be successful, the enemy would be surrounded.

The Japanese had already commenced to bridge the Hunho. Kuropatkin reported to St. Petersburg that the Japanese had concentrated a huge force northwest of Mukden and immediate retirement was necessary.

On the 9th, in the western zone, the fighting was most desperate, Kaulbar's army, further reinforced by troops sent by Bilderling, delivering counter-attack after counter-attack led by Kuropatkin in person. Nogi's centre and left could make no further headway. His right column encountered the enemy in strength occupying two fortified villages west of the Northern Tombs, connected by a long trench. The Japanese threw themselves again and again at the villages and trench, and again and again were thrust back bleeding and decimated. They renewed their attacks during the night, but made no satisfactory progress.

Southwest and south of Mukden the Russians were desperately holding the railway and the line of the

Hunho behind strong defences, to cover the retirement of their main forces.

In the Machuntan region the Japanese continued their vigorous pursuit and at 17 o'clock occupied Fushun.

In the eastern zone after many days and nights spent in constant attacks, they had driven the Russians out of Tita at 3 o'clock. At midday Kuropatkin wired to St. Petersburg, "I am surrounded."

On the 10th Linevitch's army, cut off from the Russian main forces, continued its retirement northeast over the mountains. It was in a demoralized condition. The rearmost troops occasionally made rough entrenchments to check pursuit, but did not attempt to fight any vigorous rearguard action.

At 10 o'clock Nodzu entered Mukden. The retiring Russians got entangled in the southern environs of the city and many thousands were taken prisoners including most of the foreign *attachés*. Huge quantities of arms, ammunition, provisions, forage, and stores fell into the hands of the Japanese.

The Japanese advance toward Mukden

Southwest of Mukden, Kaulbars was driven from his last stronghold at Tsaotatzu and began an orderly retreat north, covered by a skillfully handled rearguard.

At daybreak four battalions of Nogi's right column broke through the trench between the villages and got behind the enemy. But the fire was too hot for them, and they had to seek cover behind the wall of the outer en-

closure of the Tombs. They immediately loopholed the wall and prepared it for defence.

A detachment of Kuroki's reached Puho, thirteen miles north of Mukden, and succeeded in capturing some prisoners and carts.

*Russians
retire from
Mukden.*

At 15 o'clock the Russians began to retire from all their positions in the vicinity of Mukden. But a gap remained north of the city which neither Nogi and Oku on the west of the road, nor Nodzu and Kuroki on the east could manage to force, though their troops attacked again and again with indescribable fury and unexampled bravery. Dearth of ammunition and lack of numbers due to heavy losses, and the heroic and dogged resistance of Stachelberg's and Zarubaieff's Army Corps, which were covering the Russians' retirement, doomed the Japanese to the mortification of seeing the enemy literally melt away before their very eyes, at the moment when they had got round both his flanks and decisive victory seemed an absolute certainty.

All four armies shelled the retreat to a certain extent, but a thick dust-storm raged all day and made accurate laying a matter of impossibility.

*End of
Mukden
campaign.*

At 20 o'clock Oku and Nodzu joined hands in rear of the enemy and the Mukden campaign had come to an end. At 18 o'clock Kuropatkin had wired to St. Petersburg: "Our retreat has been most dangerous, but, thanks to extraordinary efforts, our armies are now out of danger."

Oyama wired to Tokio: "To respect sanctity of place where Imperial dynasty of China arose, and to preserve peace and tranquillity among Chinese inhabitants of Mukden, in issuing orders for pursuit, I have strictly prohibited troops from taking up quarters within walls of the city."

On the 11th the Russians continued their retreat north, hungry, exhausted, and demoralized, and the Japanese followed closely on their heels, constantly harassing both flanks.

In the eastern zone, the Japanese drove the enemy out of Yingpau, eighteen miles east of Fushun. In the mountainous district east of the Imperial Chinese road, a large number of Russian officers and men surrendered.

In the western zone, the Japanese continued to drive the beaten Russians north. The Russians' retreat was most arduous, the country being intersected by nullahs with steep banks, where wagons could only cross singly. Fifteen miles north of Mukden they had to abandon a train of carts twelve miles long.

*The
Russian
retreat.*

It was necessary now for Kuropatkin to make a stand to check pursuit to enable him to restore order amongst his retreating troops. He accordingly drew up two divisions and fifty-six guns on the hills south of Tieling, carefully entrenched. The Japanese attacked in centre and both flanks with two brigades on the 12th, but were repulsed with 750 casualties. The following day they

pressed forward again, and succeeded in driving back the Russians, who lost 1,000 men before they retired.

On the same day, the 13th, Kawamura's centre column occupied Hsingchingting. At midnight on the 15-16th, the Japanese occupied Tieling, after a hard fight. On the 17th it was officially announced at St. Petersburg that Kuropatkin had been relieved of the Commander-in-Chiefship of the Russian Forces in the Far East and Linevitch appointed in his stead.

*Russian
losses.*

The Russian losses were great. Forty thousand were taken prisoners, including General Nakhimoff, 26,500 killed, and 90,000 wounded, or 156,500 casualties in all; while 2,000 horses, 60 guns, 60,000 rifles, 200,000 rounds gun ammunition, 25,000,000 rounds S. A. A., 150 ammunition wagons, 1,000 transport wagons, 3 Chinese cartloads of maps of the country, 45 miles of material for light railway and 350 wagons for same fell into the victors' hand.

The Japanese casualties were 73,235.

*General
Linevitch
supersedes
General
Kuro-
patkin.*

[In 1905, General Kuropatkin is superseded by General Linevitch as Commander-in-Chief of the Russian army in Manchuria. Manuel Garcia, the great singing-teacher, celebrates his hundredth birthday. A new island appears in Rui Kui Archipelago. A disastrous earthquake occurs in India. A demonstration of the unemployed takes place in Trafalgar Square, London. Ports

A.D. 1905

BATTLE OF MUKDEN

of Formosa are closed to foreign ships. The Czar issues orders granting freedom of worship in Russia. There are massacres in Warsaw. Admiral Togo annihilates the Russian Baltic fleet in the Sea of Japan.] *Togo's victory.*

BATTLE OF THE SEA OF JAPAN

(A.D. 1905)

ARCHIBALD S. HURD

ADMIRAL TOGO handled his ships in the Sea of Japan with such complete success that what the best opinion thought would be a hard-fought battle resolved itself into a battue. In the long story of sea warfare there is no parallel to the series of events which culminated in this fight. With a fleet far inferior in battleships, but with a superiority in armored cruisers and torpedo craft, the Japanese swept practically out of existence, in a period of about forty hours, the forces under the control of the Russian Commander-in-Chief. In thirty-seven minutes, Admiral Togo tells us, the issue was decided, and the remainder of the time was devoted to "rounding off" the victory. If any importance could be attached to those elaborate "paper comparisons" which are used to indicate the standard of strength of the great naval Powers, the result of the action of May 27-28 should have been a draw, with the advantage slightly in favor of Admiral Togo. The history of the

A thirty-seven minute victory.

naval struggle since the dramatic opening of February 28, 1904, has served to completely unmask the virtue of those mechanical comparisons between the strength of rival fleets, which it is so easy to make and which events are so swift to expose. Russia began the war with a fleet thrice as strong as that of Japan, but it was widely distributed, while Japan's forces were concentrated.

Sea power is a delicate combination of forces which cannot be purchased with money alone; it consists in the provision of the best-ried weapons, and the patient training in their efficient use of officers and men who have the three essential characteristics—the fighting edge, an aptitude for technique, and the sea habit.

Japan entered upon this war with one of the smallest fleets in the world. With six battleships and eight armored cruisers the officers and men of the Japanese Fleet, supported by torpedo craft and scouts, have swept from off the Far Eastern seas every single vessel flying the Russian ensign. It was Nelson's dictum that "numbers only can annihilate." These words were written in the old sailing days, when ships fought side by side, and the crews engaged in hand-to-hand contests; and if there is one moral more than another to be drawn from the great victories won by the Japanese, it is that this saying of the great British sea-captain is no longer applicable to modern conditions. If numbers could have annihilated, Japan at this moment should be under the heel of the Tsar.

*Japan's
small fleet.*

The battle of the Sea of Japan, as Admiral Togo has officially styled it, occurred after a period of many months of anticipation and speculation. From August 14, when Admiral Rojestvensky hoisted his flag on the *Kniaz Suvaroff*, down to the opening of the fight in the Tsushima Straits, the progress of his squadron from the Far West to the Far East fascinated the world. It straggled out in detachments, and when, early in May, the last installment of the out-going fleet, under Admiral Niebogatoft, effected its junction with the main body under Admiral Rojestvensky off the coast of Indo-China, naval opinion, irrespective of its sympathies with the one or the other belligerent, acclaimed in terms of high praise the achievement of the Russian admiral in taking his great heterogeneous and unruly armada within strategical touch of the Japanese forces. Never had an admiral been entrusted with a task of the kind fraught with so many difficulties, and whatever epitaph history may write on the Russian admiral as a war commander, nothing can rob him of the credit due to his unparalleled success as a leader of men and a resourceful and dogged sailor. Attended by nearly fifty steamships, including an immense number of transports and other auxiliaries, and a curious assortment of obsolescent and obsolete men-of-war, Admiral Rojestvensky steamed past Formosa to a point not far distant from Shanghai, where he detached a portion of his auxiliaries, and in high hope of victory because he had the "numbers" with which to

*Rojest-
vensky
a great
leader and
sailor.*

"annihilate," turned to make a dash for Vladivostok through the Straits of Tsushima. He may or may not have known that Admiral Togo had lost one of his best battleships a year previously, and that the number of units of this class at his command was only four in addition to eight armored cruisers. It is certain that the Russian admiral over-estimated the fighting value of the *matériel* which constituted his fleet, and failed to understand the subtle combination of the human element and the gun and torpedo which constitutes naval power. There seems no doubt that Admiral Rojestvensky and his officers entered on the final contest with high hopes. He made the fatal mistake of valuing too highly his own strength in ships, and under-estimating the strength of his foe, and he appears to have attributed to Admiral Togo the false strategy of dividing his force so as to guard the other straits through the Japanese archipelago leading to Vladivostok. As the Japanese had the interior line, it was unnecessary for Admiral Togo to change the disposition he had already made until by the actual movements of the enemy he was assured that Admiral Rojestvensky had decided not to take the short cut to Vladivostok by way of the Tsushima Straits.

Early on the morning of Saturday, May 27, the Russian fleet approached the Straits of Tsushima, lying between Korea and the island of Kiusiu. Admiral Rojestvensky was still under the impression that Admiral Togo had so divided his forces that only a small squadron

*Rojest-
vensky un-
der-esti-
mates his
enemy's
strength.*

would be on guard at this point. He seems to have sent out no scouts to "feel" for the enemy, but steamed ahead in two columns, his cruisers on the right and his battle-ships on the left, with his auxiliaries between and tailing off in the rear. He had got his head well into the danger zone before he realized his mistake. A small force of Japanese cruisers appeared ahead of him, and opened the fight with a desultory fire, and apparently the Russian admiral believed that this small decoy force comprised the only Japanese men-of-war in the vicinity. Undismayed, he pressed forward, the Japanese cruisers flying before him. Meanwhile Admiral Togo, with the main fleets, lay hidden from view among the islands which bestrew the Korean littoral. His whereabouts were not known even to most of the officers in the subsidiary squadrons, much less to the people of Japan. In Japan, at least, it is recognized that a surprise is the essential factor in success, and that, therefore, success depends on secrecy. Admiral Togo had issued his orders to his subordinate admirals, and kept in wireless communication with them, but his exact place of hiding was, outside the main fleets, known to only a small circle of officers. When the Russians had entered the battle zone, which he had prepared for them with such patience and self-constraint in the weary months of waiting, the scheme was dramatically developed. The whole fleet of Japan, as though by the ringing up of a curtain, revealed itself in fighting trim, and the greatest sea battle ever fought

*Story of
the battle.*

*Admiral
Togo in
hiding.*

*Greatest
sea battle
ever
fought.*

had commenced. When the Russians were well in the Channel between Tsushima Island and Japan, with the "decoy" squadron ahead, Admiral Togo, with four battleships and two armored cruisers, appeared round the northern end of the island, followed by Admiral Kamimura with the other six armored cruisers.

*Clever
strategy.*

After a feint, the whole twelve armored ships steered diagonally across the face of the enemy so as to bring their broadside to bear in a concentrated fire on the leading Russian ships. When by this manœuvre the preliminary demoralization had been produced—the Russian battleship *Oslavia* taking fire—Admiral Kamimura raced to the rear of the enemy, while three light cruiser divisions worried his flanks, and in a special degree attacked the transports. Thus were the Russians hemmed in owing to Admiral Togo's bold tactics—"Demoralization and then destruction," might have been the Japanese motto. They were determined to have a fight to a finish, and they acted on Nelson's dictum "out-manœuvre a Russian."

In this wise did the battle open. Could Admiral Togo win? Those who care to read again the anticipations of qualified writers may see that even to the last it was held that though the odds were in favor of Admiral Togo, the outcome of a set battle was uncertain to this extent, that the fighting might prove so desperate, the losses on both sides be so great, that the victor, to whichever side the laurels fell, would be so shattered and even deci-

mated that he might emerge from the conflict with a fleet only in a complimentary sense ruling the Far Eastern seas. Assessed by every tangible fighting asset, the comparative strength of the two fleets approached something of an equality. In guns and torpedo equipment they contrasted thus:

Comparative strength of the two fleets.

Calibre of Guns	Number of Guns	
	Russian	Japanese
12 inch	26	23
10 inch	7	3
9 inch	12	4
8 inch	13	34
6 inch	147	196
Number of torpedo tubes (about)	124	200

Judged on this basis, there was no reason why the two fleets should not emerge in something of the condition of the Kilkenny cats after their famous encounter. How completely were all prognostications falsified in a matter of thirty-seven fateful minutes! While still about eight miles distant, the Russian ships opened a quite ineffective fire. The Japanese waited in patience. At a range of three and three-quarter miles, so as to give full play to the main armaments of his battleships and armored cruisers, Admiral Togo began a terrific cannonade, and rained shells with diabolical accuracy upon the leading ships of the Russian Fleet. Suddenly brought face to face with the enemy in full power, Admiral Rojestvensky

*Confusion
of Russian
fleet.*

hesitated, his fleet became confused, Admiral Kamimura raced to cut off his retreat, and the issue was decided. "The enemy," says Admiral Togo, "opened fire at 2.8," and later on in his despatch he records that "the result of the battle was decided at 2.45"—thirty-seven minutes. What followed was merely a battue.

The fight began at Okinoshima and continued over a width of seventy miles for a distance of two hundred and thirty miles before the destruction was complete. The Russian gunners forming the crews of the 6-inch guns could do nothing at so great a distance under the rain of shells which fell upon them, and the efficiency of the men who manned the 10-, 12-, and 8-inch weapons of the Russian ships was also unequal to engaging in battle with rough seas causing their vessels to pitch and roll. The gunner's difficulty in a long range sea-fight is not direction, but elevation, and only those who have watched manœuvring fleets firing in a heavy sea-way can fully appreciate the immense difficulties which naval seamen must combat in their attempts to fire accurately as well as straight. Not until the Japanese were satisfied that the long range fire had reduced the Russian Fleet to a disordered mess, did their men-of-war draw into a shorter range. The gateway by which the foe had entered the stage prepared by Admiral Togo had been sealed owing to the superior speed of Admiral Kamimura's armored cruisers. "At twilight," Admiral Togo states, "our destroyer and torpedo flotillas gradually closed in

upon the enemy from east, north, and south, and let loose their horde of torpedoes. Little of the Russian Fleet survived this terrible night's work."

Thanks to the better steaming of his ships, the Japanese admiral was able to send forward a strong squadron to get across the face of the Russian Fleet. The "Daily Telegraph's" correspondent states: "Now the superior speed of the Japanese Fleet proved a tremendous factor. With every ship doing her best, Admiral Togo went full speed ahead. It was a short but exciting race. When the Japanese had obtained a sufficient lead they turned, and formed a barrier right in front of Admiral Rojestvensky, whose position from this moment onward was hopeless. This new Japanese formation was like a crescent, or nearly a half circle, and pressing down from the north it formed an impassable barrier on the road to Vladivostok." Admiral Enquist again records: "The enemy's tactics were directed to preventing us from getting through to Vladivostok. Every time our squadron attempted to steer northward, the Japanese, thanks to their superior speed, headed off our columns, their battleships concentrating their fire on our leading battleship." Again, describing the manner in which the Japanese encircled them, the Russian admiral says: "Owing to the low speed of our ships, it was difficult to escape from this position."

*Superior
speed of
the
Japanese
ships.*

Of the great armada which Russia had fitted out with so much boasting and parade, there remained by Mon-

Relative
losses.

day morning only four cruisers and two destroyers which escaped, apart from the two battleships and the two coast-defense ships which were forthwith taken to Japanese ports as prizes. It is calculated that in the battle about 14,000 Russians were drowned, and Admiral Togo claims to have secured over 3,000 prisoners. Admiral Togo's tactics were marvelously successful. In achieving the great task of wiping the Russian Fleet off Far Eastern seas he lost only three torpedo boats, while the casualties in the whole of his fleet were merely 113 officers and men killed, and 424 officers and men wounded.

King
Haakon
VII. of
Norway.

[In 1905, the Atlantic Yacht race is won by the American *Atlantic*. The King of Spain's life is attempted in Paris. Earthquakes occur in Montenegro and Mont Pelée. Norway and Sweden separate. Treaty of Peace is signed at Portsmouth, N. H., by the Japanese and Russian Envoys. Admiral Togo's flagship is destroyed by an explosion. Count Witte is appointed chief Minister of Russia. The Korean Government is transferred to the control of Japan. Norwegian Parliament elects Prince Charles of Denmark King of Norway. He assumes title of Haakon VII.]

THE SEPARATION OF NORWAY AND SWEDEN

(A.D. 1905)

HENRY SETON KARR

NORWAY as a kingdom has existed for over a thousand years, and even in the remotest ages of her history possessed a standard of culture that few northern nations could equal, as is witnessed by the old Norse laws and institutions, and by her ancient literature (the Sagas). *Antiquity of Norway.*

For nearly 400 years before 1814 Norway and Denmark were united under one crown, Christian I., King of Denmark, being elected King of Norway and crowned at Trondhjem in 1449. But the foundation of the present trouble may be said to have been laid in 1814, at the time of the general upheaval caused by the Napoleonic wars, and the consequent rearranging of the map of Europe. Denmark took the wrong side, as it turned out, and allied herself with Napoleon when his power was broken. Sweden, on the other hand, joined Russia, and so, when the Allies emerged victorious from *Union with Denmark.*

*Sweden
assumes
control.*

the historic struggle, Denmark was punished by being deprived of the crown of Norway, which, by the Treaty of Kiel in January, 1814, was proposed to be handed over to Sweden as a reward for Marshal Bernadotte's assistance against his former chief. Prior to this, Bernadotte, by a strange romance of history, had been adopted as Crown Prince of Sweden in 1810 by the childless King Charles XIII.

*Unrest in
Norway.*

But the Norwegian people had to be reckoned with; and, when tidings came of the Treaty of Kiel, these hardy Norsemen promptly declined to be handed over to a new monarch in this cavalier fashion.

*The
revolt of
1814.*

A gathering at Eidsvold was held in February, 1814, and Prince Christian Frederick, then a Norwegian Stadtholder, and afterward King of Denmark, was appointed Regent. This was followed by a further meeting of a representative body of Norwegians, also held at Eidsvold, on the 20th of April, when the present Constitution was drawn up, and on the 17th of May it was agreed to by all present amid a scene of great enthusiasm. On the same day Christian Frederick was chosen King.

*A brief
war.*

After this, events followed one another with some rapidity. Sweden proceeded to assert her claims by force, and Karl Johan Bernadotte led a Swedish army across the frontier; but the campaign only lasted fourteen days. After some unimportant skirmishing an armistice was agreed to, and the Convention of Moss was held on the 14th of August, at which the allies, England, Prussia,

Russia, and Austria, were represented. This convention abrogated the Treaty of Kiel. Karl Johan agreed to maintain the Norwegian Constitution, provided he was chosen King, and the Storthing was again summoned to consider the question. Christian Frederick's courage, however, failed him, and he resigned and left Norway on the day the Storthing met.

There was now no further difficulty, and the Swedish King, Karl XIII., was elected King of Norway by the Storthing on the 4th of November, 1814. The Crown Prince came to Christiania and swore to observe the Norwegian Constitution, and the next year the Rigsakt, or Act of Union, was passed by the Storthing.

*Karl XIII.
elected
King*

This Constitution has been sworn to by every succeeding King of Norway and Sweden up to the present day. It thus appears that the Constitution (Grundlov), approved at Eidsvold on the 17th of May, 1814, is the Magna Charta of Norway, the guardian of her political freedom, the basis of her union with Sweden, and the document to whose terms all differences between the two countries require to be referred.

We now turn again to the Constitution itself. Here is its opening sentence: "The Kingdom of Norway shall be a free, independent, indivisible, and inalienable kingdom, united with Sweden under one king; its form of government shall be a limited and hereditary monarchy."

*Norway's
Constitu-
tion.*

Taking the Constitution as a whole, it is a most re-

*A working
model
as law.*

markable effort of the statesmanship of nearly 100 years ago. It has been pronounced, on high authority, as the most liberal of constitutions, one of which any modern nation might boast. Mr. Samuel Laing describes it as "a working model of a constitutional government, and one which works so well as highly to deserve the consideration of the English people." Under this Constitution, the same writer continues, "the Norwegian people enjoy a greater share of political liberty, and have the framing and administering of their own laws more entirely in their own hands, than any European nation of the present time."

*The King
resisted.*

When things had settled down, Karl Johan tried to regain lost ground. Among other things he particularly wanted the power of absolute veto, which, under the Constitution that he had accepted, he did not possess. The sturdy patriots of the Storthing resolutely declined to entertain his proposal, and to this day the merely suspensive royal veto remains one of the most important features of the Constitution.

*Abolition
of the
nobility.*

On one occasion, for example, a few years after the union was entered into, the Norwegian Storthing passed a bill for the abolition of nobility, the country being too poor to maintain an aristocracy. Karl Johan took a different view. He looked upon this abolition as a blow aimed at his power in Norway, and twice refused his sanction. The bill passed a third time, under the Constitution became law, and so the people's will prevailed.

During the ensuing century, and up to the year 1905, several further attempts had been made on the part of Sweden to give the King greater power, and to bring the two countries into closer union; but the Norwegians always resisted these efforts, knowing full well the dangers of such a course for their independence.

Sweden's attempts to gain power.

It will be seen, then, that the King of Norway and Sweden could exercise his veto only twice. The Norwegian Parliament possesses a right unknown in any other monarchy. When the same bill has been passed by three successive Storthings, it becomes the law of the land without the assent of the King. The King can thus delay a bill from becoming law for, say, seven to nine years. This should serve as a sufficient check upon any legislative assembly, while at the same time ensuring that the supreme will of the people shall ultimately prevail.

The power of veto.

The late King Oscar on two other occasions refused his sanction to measures passed for the second time by the Norwegian National Assembly—namely, the bill for the admittance of the members of the Government to the debates of the Storting; and the bill for eliminating the symbol of the union from the Norwegian national flag. Both these bills, on being passed for the third time, became law. The late disagreement, which culminated in the respectful dethronement of King Oscar by the Norwegians, had existed for twenty-five years. Norway wanted a separate consular service, which the Stockholm Government had declined to grant. The Storting passed

King Oscar's vetoes.

a law accordingly; it was duly presented to King Oscar by the Norwegian Cabinet at Stockholm; but the royal assent was unhesitatingly refused.

The Storthing then took a startling and unprecedented step. The resignation of the Ministry, having been tendered and declined, the King knowing full well that it was impossible to get any one else in Norway to carry on the Government in face of the opposition of a united people, the National Assembly met on the historic June 7, 1905, and, in effect, formally deposed the King. The concluding words of the President of the Storthing, Herr Berner, on this momentous occasion, are worth recording. In the midst of an impressive silence, all standing up, the President moved the following resolution:

"As the members of the Council of State have resigned their office, and as His Majesty the King has declared himself unable to form a new Government, and as the constitutional royal power has ceased to be operative, that the Government which has just resigned should be empowered to carry on and exercise the authority (which they had formerly received from the King) in accordance with the Constitution of the kingdom, with the necessary alterations; that the union with Sweden under one king is dissolved in consequence of the King having ceased to act as a *Norwegian* king."

Their action is the expression, so far, at all events, as an observer can judge, of the deliberate will of a united

*Deposition
of the
King.*

*A new
Govern-
ment
formed.*

and homogeneous people; evoked by ninety years of international friction, and finally culminating in (let us hope) peaceful but determined separation.

*Peaceful
but deter-
mined
separation.*

[In 1905, the Greek Premier, Delyanni, is assassinated. The Japanese win a cavalry engagement. A railway accident on the New York Central kills 21. The Prefect of Moscow is assassinated. A bomb is thrown at the Sultan in Constantinople. The Russian Governor of Sakhalin surrenders with 4,000 men. President Roosevelt receives the Peace Plenipotentiaries on the U. S. S. *Mayflower* in Oyster Bay. The Russo-Japanese Peace Plenipotentiaries hold their first session at Portsmouth, N. H.]



PEACEMAKING AT PORTSMOUTH

(A.D. 1905)

J. C. O'LAUGHLIN

WE SAT around the hotel on that fateful Tuesday morning, waiting to hear from the conference room in the Portsmouth Navy Yard, where the plenipotentiaries of Russia and Japan were deciding the question of peace or prolongation of the war. The air was surcharged with electricity. The young girls, who had contributed the lighter side to this serious business, sang and frolicked, but they wore on our nerves, and we got up and stared expectantly at the silent telephone over which the news would come. Hanging restlessly about the edge of the crowd were a few members of the Russian suite who had been excluded from the Conference. Near them, equally restless, were a couple of Japanese—Takeshita, the naval *attaché* at Washington, and little Hanihara—and some newspaper correspondents from the Land of the Rising Sun. I joined Captain Roussine, who is the naval adviser of General Linevitch, and Colonel Samoiloff, who was

*Peace or
prolonga-
tion of
the war?*

military *attaché* of Russia in Tokio before the war began. "We knew war was coming," the Colonel explained, "months before the Japanese attacked." "I had my trunks packed in January and expected to receive my passports at any moment," Captain Roussine interrupted. "Before I left Manchuria, General Linevitch, General Kuropatkin, and the rank and file of the army told me to say to M. de Witte that Russia should not make humiliating concessions. We are in a position now to gain victory. A merchant, a Russian merchant, came to me on the train and urged me to oppose with all my strength any attempt to make a humiliating peace."

I went over to the Japanese. They were nervous. They had been given to understand that concessions, large concessions, would be made. They did not know their extent. Japan would not accept half of Sakhalin; she must have all. It was hers by historic association, hers by right of conquest. She would insist upon indemnity. Russia could not expect to have peace without paying for it. The Japanese people would never approve a treaty which did not contain a provision for the payment by Russia of at least \$600,000,000. I returned to the Russians. We walked over to the annex of the hotel, which formed the Russian headquarters. We entered Roussine's room and talked of the weather—it was a beautifully sunny day—of the characteristics of De Witte, then of the inevitable Conference. "We will go this afternoon," said Samoiloff. "Yes," said Roussine, "there's no doubt about

*Russian
pride.*

*Anxiety
of the
Japanese.*

that." The door swung open. General Yermoloff, the military adviser of De Witte, appeared. "It's peace," he cried. "The Japanese have given in." *"It's peace!"*

Nobody stopped to ask for details. We ran to the main hotel to get the official bulletin. The telegraph instruments were clicking at a furious rate. The newspaper correspondents, American, Russian, Japanese, French, German, English, Italian, Argentinian, were writing at breakneck speed. To all sections of the world the news that peace had been agreed upon was being bulletined.

The Russians had no chance. The men who were not newspaper correspondents, but bankers or brokers or anything else they chose to call themselves, gathered in little groups. "It is the most magnanimous act of history," one said. "There is no parallel. Here the conqueror, acting solely in the interest of humanity and civilization, surrenders his right to territory which his troops occupy, and to indemnity to which he is justly entitled. It is great, heroic." Another voice broke in: "It is a diplomatic triumph of the highest order. De Witte scores hard. He has outgeneraled Komura and Takahira. He gave in on points which had been determined by events. He gave up half of Sakhalin. He reduced the question to one of money. No nation with a pretense to civilization could afford to fight over a question of lucre. Japan was forced, in part by public opinion, which De Witte cleverly had created, and by the corner into which she had been driven, to give in. The ques-

A magnanimous act.

tion was narrowed down to this: 'Shall Japan make peace without indemnity, or shall she continue the war for indemnity? It was De Witte who did this.'” The conversation stopped for a moment, and then one who had listened said judicially: “It is not De Witte’s triumph or Komura’s triumph. The diplomatic victory of this Conference belongs neither to Russia nor Japan. It is our triumph, the triumph of our President, Theodore Roosevelt.”

*The
triumph of
President
Roosevelt.*

As one who has learned a great deal of what the President has done, I can say with emphasis that this is absolutely true. Immediately after the battle of Liao-Yang, a little more than a year ago, Mr. Roosevelt sounded both Powers as to whether they would make peace. Japan informed him of her terms. Russia decided to fight on. The battles of the Sha-ho and Mukden were fought. After each, the President approached both belligerents and urged them to make peace. It was done tactfully—in the case of Japan, with no intention to apply pressure to force her to stop the war; in the case of Russia, with a delicate consideration of the smarting wounds from which she was suffering. After Mukden the President found Japan’s terms more severe than they had been after Liao-Yang. While Rojestvensky’s fleet was still “in being,” he urged Russia to enter into peace negotiations with Japan. The Czar, with that obstinacy which is the predominant feature of his character, preferred to send his untried ships against the battle-scarred veterans under

Togo's command. When Rojestvensky was defeated the President moved quickly. He went from Russia to Japan, from Japan to Russia. He sought to induce them to enter into negotiations. He found Japan willing, Russia sullen. He used Germany and France. He was successful in the end, and addressed to the belligerents his formal appeal of June 8, in which he begged them to make peace, directly and exclusively between themselves, in the interest of humanity and civilization. He bridged over the distrust and suspicion which divided the fighting states; he communicated to one the names of plenipotentiaries appointed by the other; he favored Europe as the place of meeting, but Japan refusing and Germany urging, he assented to the United States as the scene of the Conference. At last De Witte and Rosen, and Komura and Takahira, stood beside him on the *Mayflower*, in sight of his home at Sagamore Hill, and then he felt that one of the great difficulties of his task had been solved. He had accomplished this, not altogether because he was the President of the United States, but because he was Theodore Roosevelt, a man of action, of energy, who cut through the red tape of international etiquette, fearing no snub in such a cause, who was prepared to use every rightful instrument that came to his hand in order to reach the high goal upon which he had fixed his eyes.

When the President bade Godspeed to the plenipotentiaries at Oyster Bay, he left them to their own devices so far as concerned the negotiations. They came to Ports-

*The
work of
Theodore
Roosevelt.*

*Arrival of
the plenipotentiaries.*

mouth, the Japanese by sea and De Witte by land (the landing of De Witte at Newport threw the Japanese and some distinguished officials into a flurry). They enjoyed a luncheon in the conference building, where no one sat down because of apprehension that the Russians or the Japanese would feel slighted if they were placed at the left instead of the right of the host. They were shown the apartments which had been reserved for them—the long conference room, with its luxurious furnishings, its Turkish rugs, and its chairs suited rather for big De Witte than for little Komura; the private offices of the Japanese and the private offices of the Russians—all fixed up in the short space of five days. They went from the Navy Yard to Portsmouth, where they were received by Governor McLane and his staff, and by the townsmen and the countrymen, and by the gaudy military who had nearly crippled the appropriations of the State by their inability to subsist twenty-four hours without eating.

*De Witte's
limitations.*

De Witte knew that while he had full powers to "negotiate, conclude, and sign" a treaty of peace, his authority was limited by precise instructions: "Not a single foot of territory, not a kopeck of indemnity." He was prepared to take responsibility, but he understood, in view of the hatred which the Czar entertained for him, that he would do so at his peril. If he made concessions which were not approved by Imperial Russia, he appreciated that he would perhaps be ruined or con-

demned by the war party, and in all probability by the Czar himself.

This is the first time in the history of the world probably that negotiations were conducted in four languages. The Japanese were insistent in the beginning that their language should be recognized, and the Russians were equally firm in speaking their native tongue. French and English were made the official languages, and were the common basis of discussion.

*Negotiations
in four
languages.*

These were the little evidences of the deadly enmity which existed between the two peoples who had sent representatives to arrange peace. On the part of De Witte and Komura, and Rosen and Takahira, there was a spirit of conciliation, of deference which made success not only easier of accomplishment but actually possible. When the Japanese first arrived, they did not believe there had been any change in the diplomacy of Russia. They remembered the shilly-shallying before the war, the prolonged discussion of every point, the inexcusable and tormenting delay. They thought: "Russia has demonstrated she cannot fight so far from home. She has internal troubles. She must make peace. If De Witte and Rosen adopt a strong attitude we will know it is a bluff. They will come to the terms we really want. We will give way on certain conditions, but we will stand firm on the others."

But there was no bluff about De Witte, and with the shrewdness, the perspicacity, the clairvoyance even,

*The
shrewdness
of M. de
Witte.*

which are distinguishing characteristics of these wonderful people, and especially of the two able diplomats who represented them, it was not long before it was established that Russia would go to a certain limit and there stick.

*The first
sigh of
relief.*

As soon as he knew the extent of the Japanese conditions, M. de Witte mapped out the grand lines of his campaign. He frankly told Komura that some of the demands were impossible, and he indicated that he was prepared to break off the negotiations. Such a result would not have suited Japan. In coming to the Conference, she placed herself at a disadvantage. She knew she would have to reveal her terms, and if the world considered them unreasonable might experience a loss of public sympathy. Interruption of the negotiations would enable the Czar to attempt to bring Germany and France to her support on the ground that the ambitions of Japan threatened the whole white race, and by publication of the terms in Russia cause the people to unite in defence of their country. Komura suggested, therefore, that the demands be discussed in detail. When he made this suggestion, every one breathed a sigh of relief. The first difficulty had been overcome. The first demand required Russia's recognition of Japan's preponderating influence in Korea, in brief the abandonment by Russia of all pretensions in that kingdom. De Witte recognized the *fait accompli*. He agreed to the demand, provided Japan recognized the independence and territorial integrity of

Korea, and would do nothing without the consent of the Korean Government, and take no steps which would deprive Russian subjects and Russian commerce of the most-favored-nation treatment. Japan wanted no restrictions. De Witte was unyielding. He won. Then De Witte agreed to the evacuation of Manchuria, insisting, however, that it be done simultaneously, and to the "open door" in that province, which involved the surrender of all exclusive privileges enjoyed by his Government. He gave up all right to Port Arthur and the Liaotung Peninsula without a struggle. There was comparatively little difficulty up to this point. In order to develop Russia's intention, the Japanese had placed the cession of Sakhalin as the fifth of their twelve demands. When it was reached, De Witte said quickly and emphatically:

*The
Korean
question
settled.*

*Sakhalin
the bone of
contention.*

"I refuse to discuss that demand. What shall we do next? Shall we proceed with the other demands or shall we break up?"

There was silence. Outside was heard the tramp of the sentry. Baron Komura paused a moment in silent thought.

"I think it would be much better," he answered suavely, "to continue the study of the points which have not been reached."

"That was the first time," a Russian said to me, "that I believed there was a chance of peace."

A break on the first three punitive demands was

avoided by the envoys agreeing to pass them over for the time being. They were not matters of much discussion. De Witte declared his Government would never pay a kopeck, not a kopeck. It would continue the war. Nor would it be humiliated by surrendering ships which had been interned, and by agreeing to limit its naval armament in the Far East. On this latter point he was willing to make a concession, to declare that Russia had no intention at this time of organizing a formidable naval force and stationing it in the Pacific. Coming to the twelfth—the fisheries demand—he consented at once. Before he left the conference room he said to Baron Komura and Minister Takahira that Russia had given in where it had been possible to do so. "We have reached the limit of our concessions," he added; "we can do no more."

*The limit
of con-
cession.*

The Russians swore they would not give up an inch of Sakhalin Island. It was strategically of the greatest value. If Japan occupied it, the Sea of Japan and the Sea of Okhotsk would be closed. Egress to the Pacific would be absolutely under Japan's control. They could not, would not, have it. Russia would fight on. When the winter came and the straits separating the island and the mainland were frozen, they could cross the ice and recapture it. The island had the same relation to Vladivostok that Long Island has to New York. If Great Britain were to demand Long Island, how long would the American people resist it?

That was the way the Russian mission talked. It was bluffing, or rather it was acting in good faith, but the Government at St. Petersburg was cabling it one way and discussing the question with the American Ambassador in another way. When the deadlock occurred, President Roosevelt, in spite of his original declaration that the negotiations should be conducted exclusively between the belligerents, stepped in. He cabled to Meyer. Three times the Ambassador saw the Czar. He induced his Majesty to agree to give up half of Sakhalin. De Witte got the instruction and was told that this was the last word of Russia. Under no circumstances would indemnity be paid. The President cabled to Griscom. The American Minister at Tokio struggled with the Japanese Government. De Witte presented to Komura his proposal regarding Sakhalin. Komura regarded it as unacceptable, but consented to cable it to Tokio. That was on Saturday. It was a blue day. "Only in the work of President Roosevelt," members of both missions said, "is there any chance of peace." Roosevelt sent messages and letters to De Witte and Komura. Sunday there was no change in the situation. The Russians were preparing to leave. On Sunday night, Takahira appeared at De Witte's apartment. He had received a message from Tokio, saying that the telegram of Komura and himself regarding the Russian proposal had arrived too late to permit of consideration on Saturday. He told De Witte

*Roosevelt
breaks the
deadlock.*

*The cable
"gets
busy."*

he must request postponement of the session on Monday, which was to be the last, until Tuesday.

*Anxious
moments.*

The next twenty-four hours was a time of anxious waiting. On Monday the rumor spread that Japan would make concessions. De Witte knew nothing of it. "I have a faint hope, a faint hope of peace," he acknowledged. He based the possibility, not upon his own instructions, but upon his belief that Japan would make concessions which he, not the Russian Government, might consider. During the night he received a message from the Emperor, directing him to break off negotiations should Japan not accept the proposal for the division of Sakhalin. M. de Witte determined—and here was a fine example of the boldness of the man—not to obey his instructions if Japan made any concession that might be acceptable.

*Rumors of
Japanese
con-
cessions.*

The Japanese mission, as it has been always, was silent. It proposed to speak when the moment arrived—not before. The meeting was arranged for 9.30 Tuesday morning.

The Japanese lost no time in acting when they were informed that the Russian mission had arrived. Takahira went to the private office of De Witte. He rapped on the door. De Witte was bending over his desk and did not hear him. He rapped again, a little louder. Still De Witte did not hear him. He rapped a third time. De Witte looked up and then rose. "Good-morning," said the Minister, "where is Baron Rosen?" Hearing the Min-

ister's voice, Rosen came into the room. "I suggest a private meeting," Takahira said. The suggestion was adopted. Then Komura arrived, and he and Takahira and De Witte and Rosen passed into the conference room.

I have asked all the envoys to give me the details of that conversation, but they refused. All that can be stated is that after a short talk, while the secretaries on both sides anxiously wondered and speculated as to what the Japanese were saying, De Witte re-entered his private office. "The Japanese yield," he said, his face working with emotion. Tears sprang to the eyes of one of the secretaries. De Witte said: "The secretaries will come to the conference room. The official meeting will begin at once." He gave a few instructions, and then his subordinates, almost dazed by the unexpected act of Japan, went to the conference chamber.

*"The
Japanese
yield."*

The envoys and their subordinates took the usual seats. One of the participants said: "It was quite the ordinary routine meeting. M. de Witte began the conversation. 'I have no further concessions,' he said. 'Russia will not agree to indemnity in any form. We will agree to divide Sakhalin Island. That is the last word of my sovereign.' Baron Komura suggested that Japan would waive the indemnity and keep all of Sakhalin. 'I can not accept any such proposal,' M. de Witte replied. 'Russia will cede only half of the island.' Baron Komura

remained silent for almost a minute and then he said quietly: 'We agree.'"

*Cheers for
De Witte.*

That is how the peace of Portsmouth was made. It was a *dénouement* that was sensational, not in the way in which it occurred, but in the decision which permitted it. When De Witte returned to the hotel for luncheon, he was received with enthusiastic cheers. I was among the dense crowd that gathered around him, eager to learn the conditions Japan had given.

"It is peace," he said, "peace!"

"And the terms, Excellency?"

"Japan accepts our ultimatum. We pay not a sou."

*Cheers for
the
Japanese.*

Later in the afternoon the Japanese envoys returned to the hotel. There was the same crowd, the same enthusiastic cheering. Before, it was the man who was applauded, this time it was not the men, not the country, but the magnanimous spirit which had caused Japan to forego compensation for the blood and treasure she had spent in vindicating what she and the world regarded as her just claims. Some say it was fear of the loss of public opinion of the world that forced Japan to this step; they are wrong. Some say it was fear of Russia; they, too, are wrong. But it was true that Japan had reached the limit she had fixed for her military operations, had established her supremacy in Korea and Southern Manchuria, acquired the Liaotung Peninsula, half of Sakhalin, a railroad line, and fishing rights, so necessary to her people. She felt that even if she occupied

Siberian territory, still she would be unable to extort indemnity from Russia. So she quietly accepted the Czar's refusal and did so in a way that deserves the admiration of the world.

[In 1905, an Anglo-Japanese treaty is signed in London. The Czar grants a Constitution to Russia. In a wreck of the Great Eastern express at Witham, many are killed. A bomb explosion in Barcelona injures 160. A Treaty of Peace between Japan and Russia is signed at Portsmouth. The Victoria Falls Bridge is opened.]

*Czar grants
Constitution
to Russia.*

THE VICTORIA FALLS BRIDGE

(A.D. 1905)

GEORGE ANDREW HOBSON

THE Victoria Falls of the River Zambesi are situated on the boundary which divides the administrative Provinces of Northwestern and Southern Rhodesia in the territory governed by the Chartered Company of British South Africa. They lie about 6° within the Tropic of Capricorn and about midway between the shores of the South Atlantic and Indian Oceans.

The Falls were unknown to civilization until their discovery in the year 1855 by David Livingstone; and owing to their remote position and the great difficulty and expense of reaching them, one of the grandest spectacles of Nature remained almost unvisited by white people until well within the last decade.

*Discovery
of the
Zambesi
Falls.*

The Victoria Falls, named by their discoverer after the late Queen, now possess a railway-station for passengers and goods which is situated on the main route of the railway projected by the founder of Rhodesia to

connect Cape Town with Cairo; and a bridge close by the cataract carries the railway across the grand chasm formed by the River Zambesi.

The rails reached the bank of the river in May, 1904, the distance from Cape Town on the south being 1,641 miles, and from Beira on the east coast, 950 miles. Twenty years before, it took over six months' trekking with oxen to get there from the sea. Now the distance is easily covered in a few days.

The survey of the ground for the bridge was made during the time the Boer War was raging; communications southward were cut, and the construction of the railway was much delayed but never quite suspended, through military operations. In 1901, after the siege was raised, and Mr. Rhodes was released from Kimberley, he was shown at his office in London a sketch of the bridge it was then proposed to build. Although he had never visited the locality he was sufficiently familiar with it from travellers' descriptions and engineers' surveys to indicate in a general way the point of crossing. He determined that passengers in the trains going over the bridge should have a view of the Falls; and as the site upon which the bridge now stands is practically the only one which could fulfil this purpose, it may be said to have been chosen by him. The preliminary design of the bridge above referred to was prepared to meet Mr. Rhodes's views, and it received his approval.

The choice of the site was finally governed by the

*Cecil
Rhodes
wants view
of Falls
from
Bridge.*

natural formation of the walls of the chasm, advantage being taken of the minimum distance to be spanned, combined with the soundest foothold obtainable. The position fixed upon is about 700 yards below the cataract.

*Choice
of site.*

The profile of the chasm at this spot is very striking. The width at the top is approximately 650 feet, whilst the depth from the general level of the ground to the surface of the water below is about 400 feet. The left or north bank of the river is an almost perpendicular cliff, but the opposite bank has a shelf about half way up, and the whole region is composed of erupted rock, mostly basalt. The general level of the surrounding country is 3,000 feet above sea-level.

*Difficulties
met with in
construction of
bridge.*

The rock being very hard, the bridge was designed to fit the profile of the gorge with as little expenditure on excavation as possible; and it would have done so, but for a mistake made by the surveyor in concluding that the rock on both sides was solid. The mistake was perhaps excusable, and was not discovered until the vegetation which thrives in the hot sun and the spray from the falls had been removed, and the work of clearing the ground and the excavation of the rock had proceeded for some time. It was then found that the shelf on the right bank on which it was intended to rest one end of the principal span was covered to a considerable depth with *débris*. By the time the error had been discovered, the preparation of the steelwork was too far advanced to permit of any alteration being made in the

structure. The difficulty had therefore to be overcome partly by increasing the depth of the concrete foundations, and partly by lowering the level of the entire bridge to the extent of 21 feet; but both time and money would have been saved had the true facts of the case been recognized at the beginning, the span designed 25 feet longer, and the truss increased in depth at the ends by 20 feet.

*Type of
bridge.*

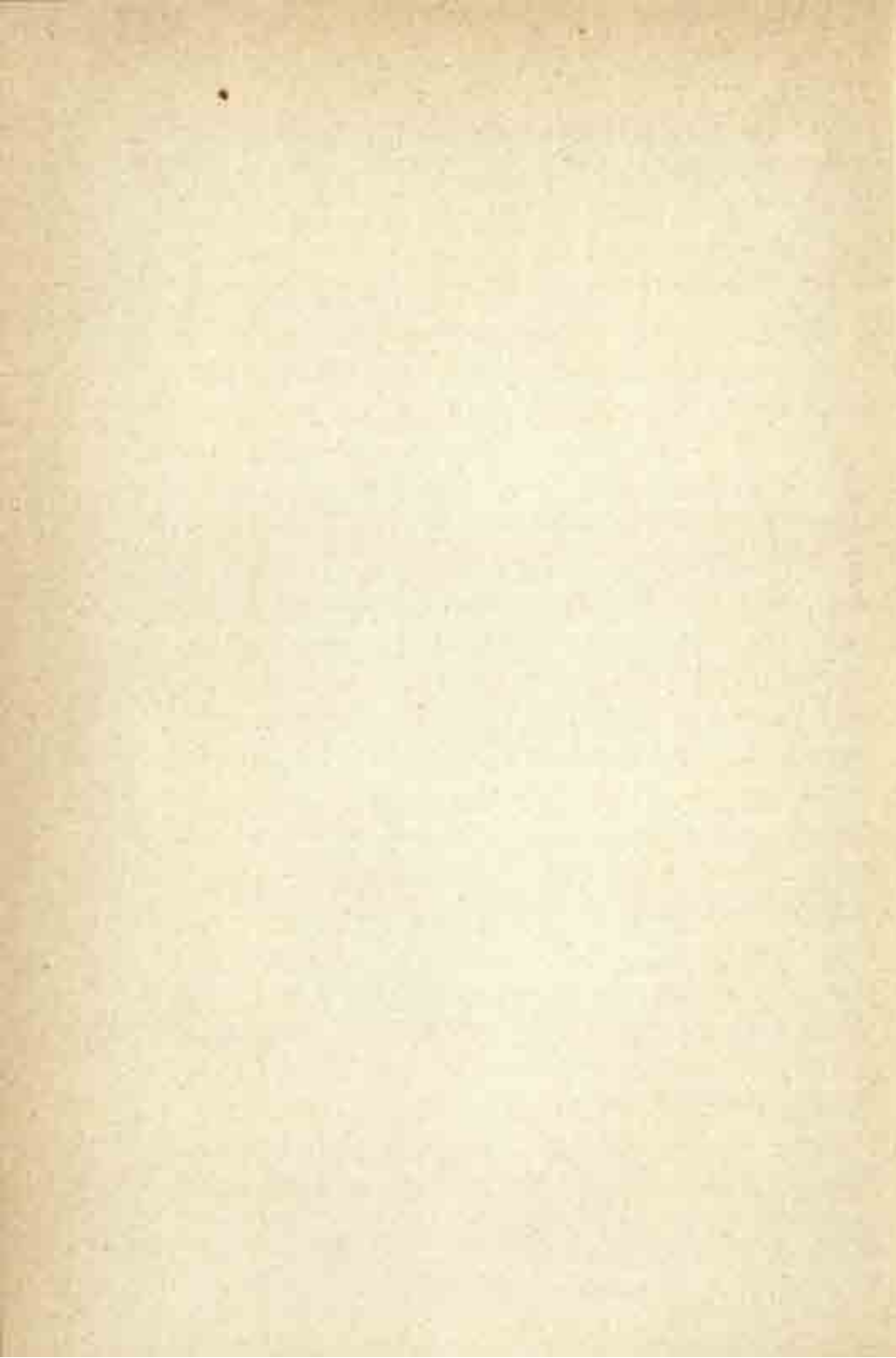
So far as the type of bridge was concerned, there was no difficulty in making a choice. Several kinds were considered, but the nature of the situation and the purpose of the work made it obvious that a two-hinged, spandrel-braced arch was the only one worth considering, as it completely and satisfactorily answered all the requirements in the case. These may be summarized as:—(1) Handsome appearance; (2) Rigidity; (3) Economy; (4) Ease of erection, cantilever-wise, without scaffolding. A steel arch of this character was therefore designed to spring from the rock walls of the Zambesi chasm, to be erected cantilever-wise simultaneously from both sides. The best, though not the earliest, example of this type is the bridge which in 1897 replaced the suspension-bridge and now carries the Grand Trunk Railway over the Niagara Gorge.

Each main girder of the Victoria Falls Bridge is a spandrel-braced arch standing on two hinge-pins, and is similar in principle to the Niagara Falls girders; it differs from the latter, however, in the span, the depth, the

load, the roadway, and all the details of construction. The means adopted in erection also differed radically from those employed at Niagara, being simpler and cheaper.

[In 1905, the Peace Treaty between Japan and Russia is signed by the Mikado and the Czar. The centenary of the Battle of Trafalgar and the death of Nelson is celebrated. The Mikado and Admiral Togo are present at a great naval review in Tokio Bay. Freedom of the City of London is presented to General Booth at Guildhall. King Oscar of Sweden renounces the crown of Norway. There is rioting in Odessa and Warsaw. A massacre of Jews occurs in Russia. The Czar grants a Constitution to Finland. Severe floods occur in Cape Colony. The German Socialist Congress opens in Jena. An International Art Congress is held in Venice. The International Congress on Tuberculosis meets in Paris. The Mikado entertains officers of the British China Squadron. Sir Henry Irving dies. The Prince and Princess of Wales visit India. Balfour resigns the Prime Ministry. A bill is passed in France for separation of Church and State. The Lewis and Clark Exposition closes.]

*Centenary
of the
Battle of
Trafalgar.*



THE GREAT DIVORCE IN FRANCE

(A.D. 1905)

RICHARD HEATH

NOTHING more important ecclesiastically has occurred in Europe since the Reformation—even the struggle in Italy has not been carried so far as this new law carries it in France. The facts, moreover, have a special interest for all countries having State Churches, whereas in Italy the situation is quite peculiar. To begin with, the Separation has not been by mutual agreement, but the State has acted like some Oriental husband, and on its own responsibility has itself put away the Churches. France has taken Official Religion to the door and, giving it all and more than all it could justly claim, has bid it begone. Thus a connection ceases which except for a short period prior to the Concordat has lasted for fifteen hundred years. Surely this is a very great and portentous fact, occurring as it does in a country than which none is intellectually more influential in Europe, and which for thirty years past has politically been gaining in stability and moral influence.

*Separation
of Church
and State.*

The crisis which brought about the final act of divorce was only the occasion, the real cause being the utter incompatibility of the temper of an ultramontane Church with that of a State not only sincerely republican, but fast becoming socialistic. The new conscience in France and the old have now for more than a century been at war and the determination of the State no longer to allow the Churches to be part of itself must have taken place sooner or later. The longer it was delayed, the worse it must have been for the weaker party.

This, it is evident, has been the conviction of the more thoughtful Catholics, and may account for the fact that the struggle has turned more on the details than on the principles of Separation. One wonders whether it must not be really welcome to the Church, in spite of all the apparent opposition. For there can be no doubt that the articles of the Concordat were in their nature despotic. Napoleon treated the Roman Catholic Church as a conqueror treats a people he intends to enslave. Under cover of an article giving him unqualified police authority over the Church, Napoleon introduced a series of regulations which enabled him to keep the Church under his feet. No papal bull or brief, or official document emanating from Rome, could be distributed in France without his permission. No papal nuncio, legate, or other representative of the Pope could interfere in the affairs of the Church in France without his authority. This it might have been said was only to reaffirm the old Gallican posi-

*The
despotic
Concordat.*

tion; but it made all the difference whether that position was under the control of a Government steeped heart and soul in Roman Catholic ideas, or under that of a Government to whom those ideas were "a farrago of nonsense." Napoleon bound the bishops hand and foot; he chose them, the Pope giving them canonical investiture. They had to take an oath of obedience to the French Government, to refrain from taking part, in and out of France, in movements dangerous to its peace, to inform the Government of any movements of the kind which might come to their knowledge, and not to travel abroad without its permission, even at the order of the Pope. The Church evidently considered it a sufficient set-off to this enchainment to find itself once more an established religion in enjoyment of a budget of religious worship and thus a department of the French State. It must have regarded the position as a vantage ground from which it would be able to recover all it had lost, since, to obtain and keep it, it was willing to endure so many humiliations, among others to share its position as a religion paid by the State with the Protestant and Jewish Churches.

*Napoleon's
control of
the clergy.*

Under Pius IX. and Leo X. it played a leading part in French political history, notwithstanding the Concordat. Now comes Pius X., who in the ardor of his faith, or as the tool of a party bent on a new policy, upsets the Concordat and drives the French Government to take action.

In resolving to face the difficulty by completely cutting the connection with Rome, the Government has had with it the great majority of the Chamber of Deputies, and there is every reason to believe that the country will approve of what has been done. That the former is the case is seen in the voting, which at many stages of the Bill has averaged a majority of over one hundred, and the latter bye-elections, which seem very favorable to the parties supporting the Separation affirm.

Parliamentary procedure.

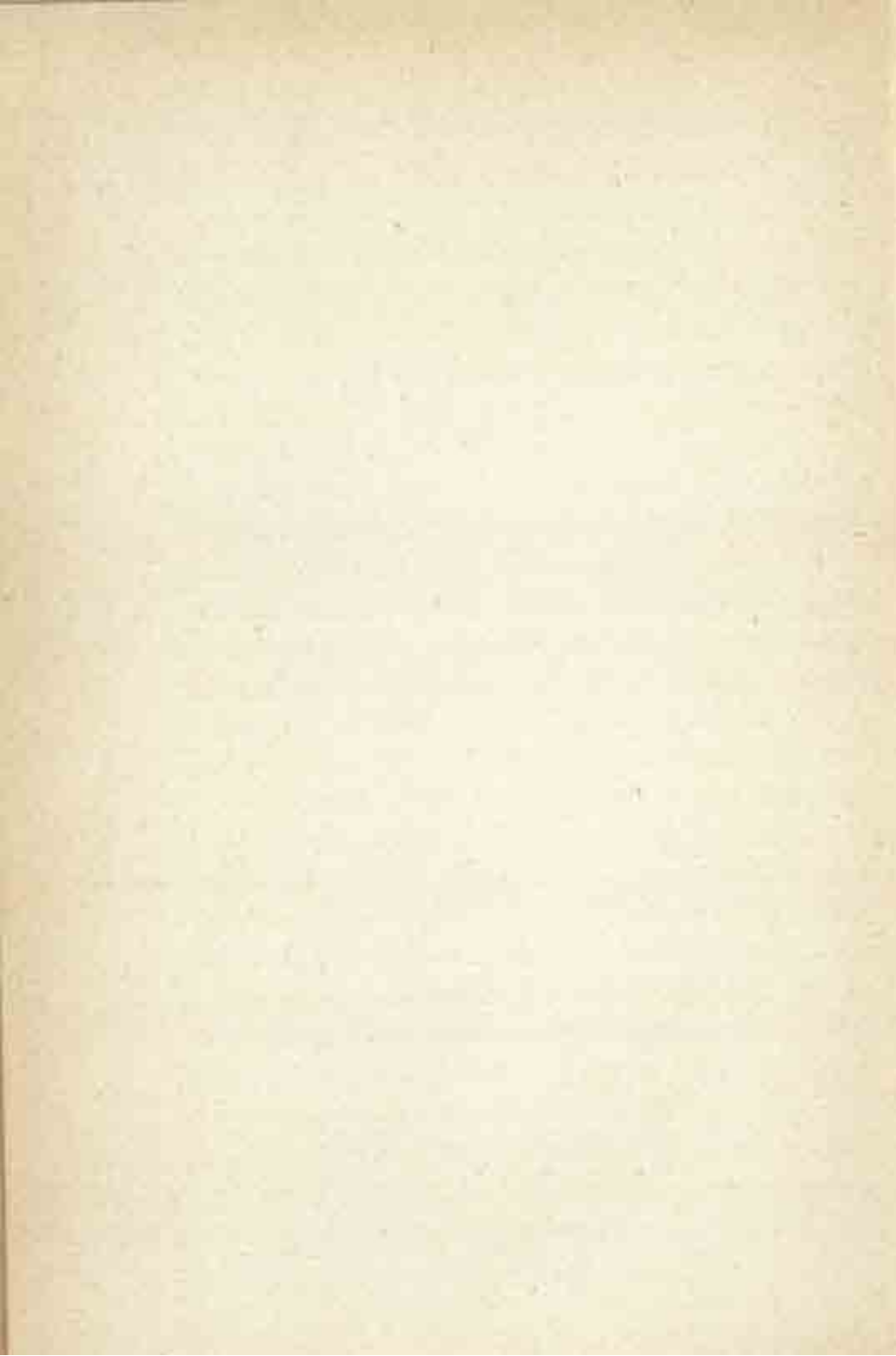
The Parliamentary procedure by which this important measure has been successfully carried out strikes a blow at the oligarchical method prevailing in most Parliaments, by which two parties carry on the Government of a country to the exclusion of all who are not connected with either one or the other. In France this system has resulted in giving to the Conservatives, though in the minority, the power to arrest important progressive legislation. Now by the institution of the *Bloc*, the various Parties of the Left—the Democratic Union, Radicals, Radical Socialists, Extreme Left, Socialists, and Independent Socialists—have united to support this particular measure, each Party being represented on the Commission deputed to draft the Bill and carry it through the Chamber. Nominated by lot in the eleven bureaux representing the various political Parties, the result has proved successful, the members of the Commission having shown singular unanimity in drawing the Bill, and patience and willingness to listen to every criticism of it.

The reporter of the Commission, M. Aristide Briand, is chiefly responsible for the measure, and it has been through his energy, address, wisdom, oratory and sympathetic understanding of his various opponents that the Bill has been piloted past the rocks and shoals which have endangered its course all through. He has had a devoted henchman in M. Jaurès, the celebrated Socialist leader and orator, and he has been well supported by M. Bienvenu-Martin, the Minister of Public Instruction and Worship, and by other Socialists. Some, however, in the various Parties of the Left have not been so well satisfied that the measure is really for the best, and about half the numerous amendments which have blocked its progress have come from them. They have undoubtedly had good reason to be dissatisfied, for as the discussion has advanced, Briand and Jaurès have betrayed signs of willingness to assuage the bitterness of the opposition of the Right and of the Centre by many concessions.

*Briand
chiefly
responsible
for the
measure.*

The Minister of Public Worship, speaking on the Bill in the Chamber of Deputies, said: "After the Separation . . . the Church (Roman Catholic) will possess wealth to the amount of three hundred millions of francs. In addition to this it will have all the buildings in which it now carries on worship for an indefinite period, gratuitously, and the buildings in which its bishops and parochial clergy are lodged at a low rental on short leases."

*Church
buildings.*



LEWIS AND CLARK EXPOSITION

(A.D. 1905)

RICHARD LLOYD JONES

THE main entrance to the Lewis and Clark Exposition is on the Missouri River. The real show of 1905 is the mighty, throbbing, earnest empire of our proud Northwest. President Jefferson gave to Lewis and Clark a higher commission than that of merely piercing the great wilderness to find out how the continental waterways took their course to the Western Seas. The expedition that started up the Missouri River in awkward, hand-made paddle craft, one hundred and two years ago, was born of imperial dreams. The mammoth errand was keystoneed by something better than idle curiosity, and the ridiculously small Congressional subsidy of \$2,500 for that vast enterprise was the greatest investment the United States ever made. Whosoever doubts it should in this Centennial year take the steel-railed trail, and in palace-car luxury traverse in three days the vast wonderland that engaged the pioneer explorers for more than two long years.

*Imperial
dreams.*

*A great
industrial
conquest.*

The Louisiana Purchase Act excepted, the Lewis and Clark Expedition is the greatest expansion act spread upon our national records. After a century of pioneering, the wild nation of Indian and elk has crystallized into a civilization that expresses one of the greatest industrial conquests known in the history of the world.

*The town of
Bismarck.*

Where Lewis and Clark encountered only buffalo, grizzly, and hordes of savage men, mighty cities have been builded wherein are centred industries of world-wide consequence. Near Mandan, where the first hard winter was spent among the hostile redskins, now stands Bismarck, the capital city of the great bread-producing commonwealth of North Dakota. The little remnants of the Mandan tribe have forgotten their fathers' resentment of the white man's invading three-bored canoe, and the giant steam plow has erased the badger's path.

*The culture
of alfalfa.*

Through the Yellowstone Valley, the arid lands, so depressing to the explorers, have been subdued by the culture of alfalfa, the sacred grass of ancient Rome. King of forage plants, it has been forced by agricultural science to spread an emerald carpet over the level desert stretches where formerly only the knotty sagebrush grew. Supplying as it does the richest food for cattle, sheep, and horses, it has converted the desert waste into a prosperous community that puts the good old Hoosier farms to a severe competitive test. These ancient desert fields have borne palaces and financed the making of great commercial cities. The same engineering and agricul-

tural skill is reclaiming Wyoming, and will, in no far distant time, east of the Rockies as well as west, make kind and hospitable all the deserts of the long centuries. Neither Lewis nor Clark, nor Jefferson himself, could guess the worth of the conquest. They only believed that some time it would be worth something, and the century has well proved the wisdom of their faith.

The Rocky Mountains at once suggested wealth, and Captains Lewis and Clark, in reporting back the mightiest obstacle on their trail, said: "In future ages the bowels of these mountains will yield greater riches than the golden coast of Guinea, or even the Peruvian Sierras." Butte and Anaconda alone have long since vindicated this prophecy.

The other great find of Captains Lewis and Clark lies west of the Bitter Root Range. The great tract west of the water divide now trisected into the States of Washington, Oregon, and Idaho, is an empire in itself. Larger than France and Switzerland combined, it is infinitely greater in resources, and its scenery is superior to the grandeur of either the Pyrenees or the Alps.

*Great
wealth and
wonderful
scenery.*

It is not extravagant to say that these far Northwestern States possess more wonderful possibilities of development than any other group of States in our Union. Their metropolitan centres are already remarkable and eloquent exhibits of both the resources and the enterprise with which they are so richly endowed. Spokane, the industrial capital of the Inland Empire, lying between the

*Spokane
the
industrial
capital.*

Rockies and the Cascades, is perhaps without a rival the cleanest city in the United States. It is a city that has developed physically, socially, morally, and industrially. Founded by a horse thief scarcely more than twenty-five years ago, it is free from every trace of social vice and gambling. The common conscience is dedicated to high tasks, a striking contrast to such a city as Philadelphia, with its Puritanic foundation and sequence of sodden corruption. In ten years this frontier town has developed into a metropolis that should be an inspiration to the workers for municipal corrections in the older cities of the East. Spokane has broad streets, well kept. It has no city canyons like Nassau and Maiden Lane. It is a city of middlemen and homes. The manufactories, flour mills, saw mills, and sash factories clustered about the powerful and still unharnessed falls of Spokane create a distributed rather than a congested wealth. It is commonly American. Pauperism is a disgrace and not a circumstance. Thrift is the slogan. The humblest cottage is individual and distinctive. Its grass plots and vine-grown walls would compose an attractive cover for any country lover's magazine. Twelve thousand carloads of dressed lumber and more than a million dollars' worth of flour shipped to Eastern cities last year demonstrate the potentiality of the infant city.

*Seattle the
Pacific
metropolis.*

In the year 2000 A. D. New York's closest rival in the census race will be Seattle. To-day the Pacific metropolis suffers by excesses. It is bewildered by its own growth

and lives by that indomitable determination which made Chicago, and was never known to fail. Its handicaps are philosophically accepted as its advantages. Its perpendicular streets are its ornaments—without them the rare setting of the city would be lost. Its hills are its boast. Seattle has ancient Rome "beat to death," for Seattle is founded on twenty hills instead of seven. Seattle is forehanded and ready to take care of the immigration that it knows must come.

Where now go the frontier and the pioneer? No longer to the West. For centuries the world's emigration has been on latitudinal lines. Seattle is the pivot point in the twentieth century that has turned the pioneer northward and emigration on the longitudinal trail. The American frontiersman is to-day felling the trees of the Yukon Valley and building enduring cities at Dyea and Dawson.

Puget Sound is the greatest harbor in the world, and no single city can ever monopolize its commerce. Tacoma, doubling its population in the last five years, is scarcely less wonderful than its northward rival resting on twenty hills. Tacoma supplies what Seattle lacks. On the broad flats stretching from the Puget waters toward Mount Tacoma's base are being built the factories and mills that will make Tacoma the substantial manufacturing centre of our long Pacific Coast. Tacoma as a shipping point can boast of the largest covered piers in the world, and of an available dock mileage greater than

*Tacoma the
great port.*

that now used by New York, Jersey City, and Philadelphia combined. Because Tacoma has more level land adjacent to tide-water than any other Puget Sound port, and because the life-supporting and wealth-producing resources of the Pacific Coast are nearly three times greater than on the Atlantic, Tacoma is destined some day to exceed in national importance any of the Atlantic seaboard cities, New York alone excepted.

Portland is the one big strong Pacific city that is not "out West." It is old, conservative, and substantial, resting on strong pioneer investments. It is lending money to-day to the very cities that are seeking to rob it of its commercial prestige. Like any good Massachusetts town, Portland has libraries, art museums, and historical societies.

To-day the Oregonian city is three times as large and infinitely greater in commercial importance than the old Maine town from which it took its name. The Government now proclaims Portland the greatest of all wheat shipping ports in the United States. Here is a town which alone and independent of the great Empire in which it is centred has more than vindicated President Jefferson's twenty years of impatience to expand to the sunset sea.

Portland was the ideal and logical centre for the Lewis and Clark commemoration. Every American is compelled to pass through our great wonderland to reach it, and the fair ground itself centres in superlative scenery.

The towering snow peaks of Mounts Hood, St. Helens, and Adams, linked by the long Cascade chain, put any artificial Tyrolean park to ridicule. Warships, ocean greyhounds, great trans-Pacific sailing vessels, and trans-continental palace trains, perpetually passing the exposition grounds, form a living transportation exhibit with which no other exposition has ever been able to compete.

*Towering
snow
peaks.*

The exposition itself is small and unimportant after the great shows of Chicago, Buffalo, and St. Louis. Notwithstanding, the Lewis and Clark Exposition has a distinguishing individuality. The Forestry Building is a working exhibit of the great timber resources of the Northwest. Constructed of huge logs felled along the Columbia River, it is perhaps the most unique architectural creation ever seen at a public exposition.

*The
exposition.*

The water features, which so embellished the shows at Chicago, Buffalo, and St. Louis, have been enlarged upon at Portland, and the two hundred and twenty acres of Guild's Lake will at night, by virtue of the submerged lamps, resemble a sea of phosphorescent water.

The European, Oriental, Agricultural and Horticultural, Mining, and Government Buildings, as well as the State Buildings and "The Trail" (the "Pike" and "Midway" of 1905), will have their full quota of attractions, as every exposition goer knows. But the real Lewis and Clark Exposition is outside the pine board fence. It is outside of Portland—it is more than Oregon. It is the

whole great Empire of the North Coast States. The Rockies, the Yellowstone, the Columbia River, the Cascades, Alaska, Puget Sound, the Yosemite, Crater Lake, the Pacific Coast, and the greatest industrial growth ever developed in a quarter of a century make up the real exposition, and no American can afford to miss it. The lath-and-plaster palace at Portland is but an embellished terminal, a thing to create cheap rates and to induce every American to go and see his own.

*Land
conscience.*

Oregon has for years been afflicted with a cancer known as the land conscience. It has fastened itself upon its highest as well as its humblest citizens. But there is yet good land in Oregon that has not been stolen, and the judicial disinfectant which the United States Government is now applying is fast reclaiming much of the land that was "appropriated." The patriarchal beards were wise enough to lay claim to a good thing. Oregon is a great State. As an agricultural State it is as old and well tried as Minnesota, Kansas, or Nebraska. The Willamette River Valley is a matchless farming land. It was the Mecca of ambitious agriculturists before gold was discovered in California. The dairy products of that one valley alone amount to seven million dollars a year, and the prize beef at St. Louis last year came from there. It's a country where the farm hands get "well fixed" so fast there is no one left to milk the cows.

Coos County, Oregon, is typical of the enterprise, industry, and thrift of all the Northwestern States. There

is a county of farmers and lumbermen with one hundred and twenty-five miles lying between it and the nearest railroad, and yet they erect at the Portland Fair a twenty-five thousand dollar building in which to exhibit their wares. What say you, Pike County, Indiana, to this? The banks of Oregon have deposits to the amount of \$2,600 to every man, woman, and child within its borders, and Oregon is not the greatest of these States.

*Prosperity
and
enterprise.*

The lumber industry of Idaho, Washington, and Oregon—still in its infancy—is the greatest in the history of our country, and will be sufficient when developed to supply the building timber for all the world for centuries to come. Already Portland and the Puget Sound cities are the greatest lumber-shipping centres in the world. In every Cascade canyon will be heard the burr of the buzz and the band saws. Lewis and Clark found our exhaustless timber lands.

*The lumber
industry.*

But the greatest industrial conquest that has followed the trail of Lewis and Clark is the conversion of wasting mountain waters to the parched lands of the deserts. Irrigation is King. Ten years ago it was an experiment. To-day it is employing more than a billion dollars, and, though a giant, it has just begun to grow. It is the Antæus of American industry, doubling in power with every touch to earth. The hopeless interior of Oregon and Washington, as well as the great stretches of Idaho, are beginning to bloom. Wealth is being created from

*Value of
irrigation.*

the great storehouses of water, sunshine, and soil. Five hundred thousand acres of Oregon's arid land will be transformed to a garden this year alone.

But the wonderland in which it all is set is the marvel of largest measure. Americans go to Switzerland to see glaciers, not knowing that we have greater ones right here at home. The largest cave in the world is found in Idaho. Its chambers are often as high as five to seven hundred feet, and thus far the overwhelming enormity of it has intimidated the most daring, and only thirty miles of its underground course has been explored. Perhaps no country abroad, even Italy and Switzerland, can match the wonderful lakes and rivers and mountains of Idaho alone. The ride from Wallace to Spokane over the Cœur d'Alene lake is not surpassed even by the environs of Lake Como. Japanese themselves frequently admit that Tacoma is as majestic as their own sacred Fujiyama, and Mount Hood is a lofty peak rising far above the poet's reach.

But there yet remains the Valley of the Yosemite; Mount Shasta, the grand guardian of northern California, and, greatest of all, the Yellowstone, the peerless wonder of the world. Writers have toured the globe to see it and there laid down their pens. As Kipling has said, "Eyes may see, but it never can be told." That such a resourceful country, abounding in such natural wonders, should have become ours through the persistent faith and dogged perseverance of Meriwether Lewis and

*The
American
Switzer-
land.*

*Natural
wonders.*

William Clark a century ago, should be the source of greatest gratitude in every patriot's heart, and the American who in quest of recreation and wisdom has been to Europe twice and never been to our Pacific seaboard once should realize that he is a fool.

The Lewis and Clark Exposition at Portland is great because of all it signifies. Let us not forget that a hundred years ago Briton and Frenchman and Spaniard were hammering at our gates. In our abundance and luxury let us recount those rugged days when Indians beleaguered our wooden castles and wolves pawed our cabin doors. It required hero stuff to build our North Coast Empire, and upon an immortal four will ever rest that glory: Thomas Jefferson, the nation builder; Meriwether Lewis and William Clark, the Empire hunters, and the red-skinned girl Sacajawea, who led them to their conquest. In all the annals of history there is no story to surpass that of the Indian birdwoman who more than once saved the heart of that great enterprise from swift decay, and even denied her own papoose the long-saved crusts that the strength of our color-bearers might not fade. With outstretched arm she led a hostile race that they might build great cities over the graves of her kind. But for her the turrets and towers that rose along the trail might to-day fly the bunting of a foreign flag. She was the silent, faithful, untiring pathfinder who led the Stars and Stripes up Missouri's waters, over the great Rocky divide, and down the "Sunset River" to the great

*The
immortal
four.*

*The silent,
faithful
pathfinder.*

father of seas that white children might some day sing the song she herself had loved long before its words were framed, "My country, 'tis of thee, sweet land of liberty." She, like Columbus, believed that "one day with life and heart is more than time enough to find a world." In the hearts of Jefferson's brave explorers she kept that spirit aflame. And so we celebrate.

*Diplomatic
relations
between
France and
Venezuela
severed.*

[In 1906, the American Society of International Law is organized, with Elihu Root as President. Diplomatic relations between France and Venezuela are severed. House passes the Philippine Tariff Bill. International conference on Moroccan affairs opens at Algeciras, Spain.]

THE ALGECIRAS CONFERENCE

(A.D. 1906)

BUDGETT MEAKIN

FOR nearly three months the usually sleepy little smuggling town of Algeciras, opposite Gibraltar, has been a centre of world-wide interest. On the invitation of the Sultan of Morocco, twelve of the powers in treaty relations with him had agreed to meet his delegates in conference for the purpose of advising him as to the best means of restoring his authority throughout his dominions and of increasing their prosperity. The actual motive for such a request had been the fear lest, as the British, whom the Moors had hitherto regarded as their friends—had, to use their expression—sold them to the French, the latter would otherwise proceed to absorb Morocco. The Conference had, indeed, been suggested by Germany, to whom Mulai Abd-el-Aziz had appealed in his dilemma, as the only Power which refused to recognize the claim of France to a prescriptive right to reorganize Morocco. Realizing this, France and her allies would only consent to representation at the Conference

*Reason for
the Con-
ference.*

after a distinct understanding had been arrived at with her neighbor as to the matters to be discussed or avoided. It was also felt that Tangier was not a suitable spot for the meetings, so the invitation of Spain to Algeciras was accepted.

Thus it came about that after lengthy consideration the landing-place of the Moors in Spain on their three successive invasions became the scene of what promised to decide the fate of their Empire. The modern town dating only from 1750, has but one attraction, a magnificent English hotel, built by the owners of the picturesque railway which connects it with the rest of Europe, and of the corresponding steamer service across the bay to Gibraltar, placing it in touch with all the world. But this attraction sufficed, and the Reina Cristina Hotel was engaged for the delegates, while the town-hall was cleared and refitted for their deliberations. Moreover, the town was whitewashed, the paving repaired, and much of the grass removed from the streets, while the railway company, which had already built an esplanade, linked it up with the town by a bridge and relaid its jetty.

In addition to the accommodation at the hotel, the Moorish and British delegates, and the numerous suites of those of France and Spain, were provided with separate villas. The enormous expense of the Conference may be judged from the fact that Sir Arthur Nicolson and his three assistants were considered to have "got off

*The town
of
Algeciras.*

*The town
prepares
for its
guests.*

cheap" at a rental of £10 a day for eighty-four days and "find themselves." A shipload of horses and carriages at £2 10s. a day each pair was transported from Seville and accommodated in the bull-ring. With these incidentals must be included the heavy item of travelling expenses, and the volume of telegrams constantly going and coming. If to this outlay be added that of the Press, represented at one time by over eighty correspondents, the total cost of the Conference will be seen to have been enormous. Under the head of telegraphing alone some five million words at least would have to be charged, a large proportion going *via* Gibraltar. The French delegation numbered about fourteen and the Spanish about ten; the Moorish eight, the German six, and most of the others four.

*Expenses
of the Con-
ference.*

The meetings were held at irregular intervals, about three times a week, being summoned whenever the President was advised that sufficient instructions had been received, or that the drafting committee had some document to present for consideration. Formal sessions were held from ten to twelve in the morning, the Conference meeting in committee from three to five in the afternoon, the drafting and translating committees assembling when and where convenient to their members. The last named consisted of the interpreters attached to several of the delegations, and their task was one of the most arduous entailed on any present. It is no slight matter to translate Occidental technical terms into Arabic

equivalents which shall be intelligible to Moors unacquainted with the ideas expressed; or to render the subtle phraseology of an Oriental document in exactly equivalent French that shall not be liable to misconstruction.

For lack of precedent to the contrary, the meetings of the Conference were all held *in camera*, only the baldest of bald *communiqués* being read by the secretaries in French and Spanish to the assembled correspondents in the central court of the town-hall. The proceedings being considered strictly private, and the documents presented being headed "*très confidentiel*," all further information imparted by the delegates and others present—some forty persons in all—was regarded as a special favor, in return for which special consideration was expected. At first many found information difficult to obtain, but as newspapers began to arrive containing statements and even documents telegraphed before they had been presented to the Conference, all reserve soon broke down, and each correspondent at once made for the man he found most willing to communicate the facts to him. The only systematized dissemination of information was arranged by the French, who had brought with them the most amiable gentleman whose duty in Paris it is to issue similar *communiqués* to the Press from the Quai d'Orsay.

Had it been possible to shut the delegates up at Alge-ciras, with all wires cut, till they had arrived at a unani-

The
newspaper
corre-
spondents.

mous agreement subject to the ratification of their respective Governments, there is little doubt that a month would have seen the end of their labors, which it is quite unlikely that either of the Powers represented would have ventured to upset by refusing to accept the result. As it was, however, the deliberations were seriously hampered by the constant receipt of instructions from the various Foreign offices, which transferred to them the real game, while at the so-called "Conference" the ostensible players were reduced to the condition of mere puppets on the board. It is true that endless *pourparlers* took place, every conceivable alternative of each phase being informally discussed *ad nauseam* between the jaded delegates, whose real task was this unending talk, not the brief times spent in meeting.

Endless
pour-
parlers.

In the absence of results, or even of decided progress, these *pourparlers* afforded unlimited scope for the busy journalist, as there was no scheme too wild to have been talked over in some mood by one delegate or another, probably much more readable and exciting than anything which received serious consideration. Thus, when even these lacked in the tedium of protracted negotiations, it was always safe to report a deadlock, touched up each time with some fresh phase of gravity in the situation, or enlivened by some out-and-out *canard*, of which the wires were prolific. Directly there were signs of approaching action the public was let down gently by premonitory telegrams that things were calmer, or the

Canards
circulated.

atmosphere was clearing; never of course shocked by the fact that all the excitement was fabricated.

Meanwhile, in the streets and hotels of Algeciras the same scratch crowd of diplomatists and journalists kept on meeting and wearisomely discussing threadbare topics, varied by an interchange or more or less humorous local jokes regarding this or that eccentricity, or the latest *canard* from Paris or Berlin. The reading-room of the hotel was crowded after lunch and dinner with the familiar figures, and heroic attempts were made to attach importance to the well-worn platitudes exchanged. On their arrival Algeciras had received its visitors with open arms and fancy prices. There had been a reception, a ball, a picnic, and bull-baiting, but welcome was now wearing out; and as matters dragged on, and correspondents dwindled or moved into rooms, leaving hotels half empty, things grew dull and wearisome.

Among the delegates there had throughout been an earnest and a combined desire to arrive at a settlement, but the optimism of most gave way at last: the Marquis Visconti-Venosta and Mr. White, representing respectively Italy and the United States, alone remained consistently optimistic. Among the journalists, however, most were pessimistic all along, and some frankly regarding the whole thing as a farce, were anxious only to see the Conference break up and France and Germany at one another's throats. When at one time it did seem likely that such counsels would prevail, the writer sub-

*Optimism
of the
delegates
from the
United
States and
Italy.*

mitted the following message before despatch to delegates of seven of the Powers not immediately concerned—Austria, Belgium, Holland, Italy, Russia, Spain, and the United States—by all of whom it was endorsed as an expression of their opinion:

"Few realize the absolute danger to foreign life and property in Morocco that the failure of the Conference to solve the European problem would involve.

"Should France persist in maintaining all her demands for preponderating influence, and Germany as determinedly continue to insist on absolute equality for all, the failure of the Conference cannot be averted and foreign interests in Morocco will be in a worse position than ever.

*Duel
between
France and
Germany
the chief
issue.*

"Is it not the duty, then, of England and Spain, as allies of France to do their utmost to induce her to abate her demands; and equally the duty of the Powers allied with Germany to induce her to recognize that France has certain interests which give her certain rights in Morocco? The French Press and people cannot be aware what they are courting in Morocco by their clamor for firmness on the part of their Government, to say nothing of the bloodshed in Europe to which it may lead."

[In 1906, the Algeciras Conference reaches an agreement in June, accepted by the Sultan, whereby the question of policing the Moroccan ports by Spain and France is disposed of—the duration of the agreement to be for

*Fallières
elected
President
of France.*

five years. Fallières is elected President of France. Capture of Quito ends Ecuador revolution. Socialist demonstrations take place in Russia. Brazilian warship *Aquidaban* is sunk by powder mine explosion near Rio de Janeiro (223 killed, including 3 rear-admirals). First passenger train passes through the Simplon tunnel. Lord Cromer opens new railway from the Nile to the Red Sea. Christian IX. of Denmark dies and is succeeded by Frederick VIII. Jewish International Conference opens in Brussels to consider the state of the Jews in Russia. Earthquake and tidal wave occur on coasts of Colombia and Ecuador. Church riots take place in France. Cyclone devastates Society Islands. British battleship *Dreadnought*, largest in the world, is launched in Portsmouth.]

DREADNOUGHTS

(A.D. 1906)

NAVALIS

WHEN his Majesty the King launched the *Dreadnought*, in February, 1906, the attention of his subjects was irresistibly drawn to their first line of defence. For weeks beforehand the event had been eagerly canvassed in the newspapers; rumor was busy with regard to the new leviathan; her size, her armament, her rapidity in building, her supposed secrets of construction attracted and held popular interest. Enthusiasts prophesied, and the public dimly felt that the latest battleship would mark the beginning of a new epoch in naval history. The launching of the *Dreadnought* was hailed as a revolution in the art of building warships which would render the navies of the world obsolete.

*Launch of
the Dread-
nought.*

Our Admiralty prided itself on having been the first to appreciate the lessons of the Russo-Japanese war, and to apply in a scientific and practical spirit the knowledge supplied by the terrific naval encounter which swept the

*Lessons
learned
from the
Japanese
war.*

Efficacy
of heavy
guns.

Baltic fleet from the seas. If the lessons of that memorable carnage could be epitomized in one word, it would be the supreme efficacy of heavy guns. The small guns (viz., all below an eight-inch calibre) had, it was said, been shown to exert but little influence during a naval action. It was the heavy ten-inch and twelve-inch guns that pulverized the Russian fleet and gave the victory to the Japanese.

Ita scriptum est. The *Dreadnought* accordingly carries such an armament as ship has never carried before. In five large turrets she carries no less than ten twelve-inch guns, marking an advance actually of six twelve-inch guns on the armament of the *King Edward VII.*, previously our heaviest armed battleship. The former secondary batteries of six-inch guns found no place in the *Dreadnought*. The war was supposed to have sealed the fate of smaller guns. Curiously enough, the Japanese themselves derived no such ideas from the teaching of the war. Their experience of the heavy guns in action told against, rather than in favor of, the *Dreadnought* design. They attributed much of their success to the accurate and comparatively rapid fire of the secondary batteries of six-inch guns carried by their battleships. After learning all that the war could teach them, they built new ships all carrying secondary batteries. It appears, therefore, that *Dreadnoughts* armed with big guns only are by no means the result of what war teaches. If the lessons of the last naval war be carefully studied, the

importance of secondary batteries will be emphasized. A cursory glance into the past history of shipbuilding will show that the new-fashioned craze for Dreadnoughts is merely a recrudescence of the "heavy-gun" cry which agitated the seventies. It is the old rivalry of weight with mobility and speed.

In the Napoleonic wars the 74-gun ship was found more serviceable than the 100- or 120-gun ship, partly on account of being more easily handled, partly because the crew was smaller and the ship could be kept at sea more economically. In the seventies a feeling in favor of "all-big-gun" ships arose. The *Devastation* carrying 35-ton guns, the *Thunderer* with 35 and 38, the *Dreadnought* with 38-ton guns were soon followed by the *Inflexible* (commissioned in 1881), carrying all 81-ton guns in her armament. The *Agamemnon* and *Ajax* came next with 38-ton guns only. The want of a secondary battery of smaller guns was now felt, and the *Edinburgh* and *Colossus* which followed carried, in addition to their twelve-inch 43-ton guns in turrets, a few six-inch guns. Next the *Collingwood*, besides her twelve-inch guns, was equipped with a regular secondary battery of five-inch guns. The *Howe*, *Rodney*, and all the class known as the "Admiral" class were fitted with six-inch batteries. The ill-fated *Victoria* and the *Sanspareil* carried each one ten-inch and a six-inch battery besides the 110-ton guns in the turret. Then came Sir William White's battleships of the Royal Sovereign class, all armed with powerful

The
"Admiral"
Class.

six-inch batteries in addition to the four 13.5-inch guns which they carried in barbettes. This system prevailed until the King Edward class was introduced, carrying four twelve-inch guns in two turrets, four 9.2-inch guns in four turrets, and a powerful battery of six-inch guns. The King Edward class was succeeded by the *Lord Nelson* and *Agamemnon*, but although these ships were designed and laid down before the *Dreadnought*, the latter was pushed forward, and was actually completed and at sea before the *Lord Nelson* and *Agamemnon*.

Now the Dreadnoughts are repeating the history of the seventies, carrying only big guns, but they carry many more of them. The old *Dreadnought* carried four 38-ton 12.5-inch guns in two turrets, but the new *Dreadnought* carries ten 60-ton 12-inch guns in five turrets, while the latest Dreadnought of the St. Vincent class will carry 12-inch guns weighing 67 tons. These Dreadnoughts are necessarily very large ships, displacing double the tonnage displaced by the old *Dreadnought*. They have turbine engines, and can steam 21 knots as compared with the 18 knots of the King Edward class. Therefore, apart from their armament, they are much larger ships, and would take much more punishment; they are also better protected by armor, and are very much faster ships.

The Russo-Japanese war was the occasion, but not altogether the cause, of building Dreadnoughts. No doubt naval battles will have to be fought at such long ranges

*The King
Edward
class.*

*The new
Dread-
noughts.*

in future that big guns will show to greater advantage. This is due to the increased range of torpedoes, but the design of the *Dreadnought* cannot be attributed to this cause, because the new long-range torpedoes are of later date than the great battleship. Probably the chief reason is to be found in studying the marvelous development of naval gunnery during the last few years.

*Increased
range of
torpedoes.*

In the seventies and even the eighties, quarterly practice from heavy guns was a thing to be got through as quickly and with as little trouble as possible. It formed a break in the routine of a man-of-war, and, although necessary, was regarded as somewhat of a nuisance. Masts and yards and sails, whilst they existed, were a much more popular form of exercise than was gun practice, and, undoubtedly the latter gave way on every occasion to the former. But mast and sail drill disappeared, and a new type of naval officer sprang up who saw the true importance of gunnery, and gave all their energies to its furtherance. By encouraging their men, and by instituting competitions and drill of a stimulating nature, the standard of firing was soon raised beyond all expectation. The quarterly firing as it used to be gave way to keen competitions amongst ships and fleets, and officers strained every nerve to bring their ships to the front. The Admiralty backed up their endeavors to the utmost, promoting and rewarding officers whose ships had gained distinction, and shelving others whose firing was not up to the mark. It was soon found that drill and

*Standard
of firing
raised.*

exercise had a limit, and further improvement had to be sought in the direction of improved appliances. Sights were naturally first developed, telescopes being introduced, and various complicated and delicate scales devised to make allowance for as many as possible of the variations which the gunner must look for.

The next and most important step came in the direction of "fire-control," this being an elaborate and complicated system by which the guns of a ship are fired under the control of an officer highly trained for the purpose. The greater the number of guns of different varieties on board, the more complex became the fire-control, and the greater the probability of mistake. It will be seen at once that the way was paved for an armament of one calibre only, such as is carried by the new Dreadnoughts.

Fire-control.

The question as to which is most likely to disable an enemy—a limited number (say ten) of twelve-inch guns; or a large number of smaller guns coupled with only four twelve-inch guns, with, perhaps (as in the King Edwards), four 9.2-inch guns, assuming that fire-control could be used to equal advantage in both classes of ship—is quite an open one, on which there is much divergence of opinion. It is true that a six-inch gun can only fire a shot weighing 100 lbs., whilst a twelve-inch gun discharges an 850-lb. shot; but it must not be forgotten that the six-inch gun will fire about eight rounds, whilst the twelve-inch will fire two rounds. Two six-inch guns

will therefore fire in a given time nearly as much weight of shell as one twelve-inch, and the two six-inch guns can be carried for about one-seventh the weight of the one twelve-inch. It seems difficult to reject the conclusion that for a given weight a battery of fourteen six-inch guns, capable of firing 11,200 lbs. of shell per minute, must be more formidable than a single twelve-inch capable of firing only 1,700 lbs. of shell in one minute.

But demoralizing as a rapid fire of six-inch shell is to an enemy, there can be no comparison between the destructive force of these and that of the large shell discharged from the twelve-inch guns. None save those who *Large shells.* have seen it can form an idea of the frightful havoc caused by an 850-lb. shell. Imagination boggles at the plight of an enemy having twenty of these terrible shells bursting on board his ship per minute. If every shot struck home there is not a battleship afloat that could survive such an ordeal even for one minute.

The right conclusion seems to be that the Dreadnoughts possess a greater advantage from being able better to control their fire. Hits only count in war-time, and the best directed fire must give the victory. The Dreadnoughts also carry enough twelve-inch guns to enable them to keep up a practically incessant fire. Eight guns in a broadside action, each firing two rounds a minute, would certainly appear incessant to an enemy if the shot struck home, and if the theory that ten hits are enough for the ordinary ship, a Dreadnought soon ought to be

able to silence a King Edward. Moreover, the Dreadnought being so much larger and better protected would probably stand much more than the suggested ten hits and hence derive another advantage.

The King Edwards, Lord Nelsons, and even the Royal Sovereigns are still formidable ships, and could render an excellent account of themselves. It will be many years before an enemy's fleet will be composed only of Dreadnoughts, and therefore our older ships will be able to find opponents with whom they are evenly matched. Between two fleets, however, of equal numbers and equally well drilled—one of Dreadnoughts and the other of King Edwards—victory should declare in favor of the Dreadnoughts.

Dreadnoughts, supposed to be more efficient than King Edwards.

[In 1906, martial law is proclaimed in Natal. The Hungarian Parliament is dissolved by royal commission. The Mikado is invested with the Order of the Garter by Prince Arthur of Connaught. The Senate passes the amended Pure Food Bill. The German Reichstag passes a bill to extend reciprocal tariff rates to the United States. A Chinese mob at Nanchang massacres English missionaries and burns American mission property. A mob at Springfield, Ohio, attacks negro quarters. Dr. Alfonso Moreira is elected President of Brazil. A tornado devastates Meridian, Miss., with a loss of \$1,300,000 and of twenty killed. The Russian Government institutes a new national Parliament. Father Gapon is arrested in

Moreira is elected President of Brazil.

St. Petersburg. Two passenger trains collide in Adobe, Colorado, and twenty-two are killed. Many perish in a Formosa earthquake. Avalanches in Colorado kill sixteen. A German colony in Southwest Africa is destroyed by the Hereros. Text of the British Government's Education Bill is published. Vesuvius is in eruption.]

*Eruption
of
Vesuvius.*

THE ERUPTION OF VESUVIUS

(A.D. 1906)

ROBERT HAVEN SCHAUFFLER

VESUVIUS is sixteen miles away, and all the doors and windows are closed; yet a fine red dust falls constantly and dims the words I write. Outside the balmy, bright Italian spring is buried in ashes and lava and gloom. The gay streets of Naples have lost all their exuberance. Even at this distance from the volcano there is little but anxiety, stolid grief, hysteria, exhaustion, and dazed terror. But as one approaches the region of the worst disaster, one understands why most of the fugitives who swarm these streets are dumb, and apparently apathetic. The horror of the thing is too portentous, and tongue and pen are seized by a paralysis of pity and awe. *A rain of red dust.*

The Italian and English papers have been filled with the most fantastic, extravagant, and conflicting reports, so that in verifying my observations I have depended rather on the verbal accounts of eye-witnesses. I am especially indebted to the kindness of Signor Bassani, the

professor of geology in the University of Naples. Professor Bassani is the master of Professor Matteucci, the hero of the hour, who in spite of everything has stuck to his post in the Vesuvian Observatory during this terrible week.

Up to the present time over two hundred lives have been lost, half a dozen towns have been partially destroyed, many thousands have been reduced to beggary in a stroke, and fair Italy has been girdled from sea to sea with a deep broad belt of ashes. These ashes contain silicates of alumina, potash, and soda, which will destroy the crops, although the land will regain its fertility in two or three years. The trees are all plastered with mud, which without a heavy rain will soon kill the leaves. And the grandest landmark of the most beautiful bay in the world has been disfigured. For so much of the cone of Vesuvius has fallen in that it now stands two hundred metres below the twin peaks of Somma, which it formerly overtopped by one hundred metres. It is as though an exceedingly handsome man should be scalped and deprived of his front teeth.

Vesuvius began to show unusual activity about the first of the year, and in February Cook's funicular railway was broken by a flow of lava. It was delightful as one walked along the Carracciolo on a soft February evening to look across the bay to the two glowing lava streams trickling down from the crater. We took an unalloyed esthetic pleasure in the sight then, for the sinister

significance of that glorious red did not impress itself on us until the morning of April 5, when a new crater was opened up east of the terminal station of the funicular railway and began spitting fine ashes over Naples, while a great stream of lava descended, threatening Boscotrecase, a little town of five thousand or six thousand inhabitants midway between Pompeii and Herculaneum.

*A new
crater
appears.*

On the following morning a second crater opened above the town in the path of the stream, and then the dark curtain was lifted upon the first act of the drama proper. The lava began its final advance on the doomed town. By six o'clock on the evening of April 7 the stream passed between the cemetery and the oratory, and half of Naples was there to see what it would do. It was a brilliant spectacle, and in its comparative harmlessness modulated mercifully toward the grimmer acts to come. The inhabitants, with touching faith and simplicity, carried the image of St. Anna in solemn procession from their church to stay the advance of the lava. It was to them a contest between the powers of heaven and of hell, and not until the first house had melted away did they lose their calm and almost cheerful faith that the good St. Anna would be as potent against the infernal river as is the holy Agatha, the protectress of Catania, when Etna rages. As a climax the great cone of Vesuvius fell in at 1:15 on Sunday morning, with a shock which created a panic in Naples itself, and a huge tree of flame

*The first
act of the
drama.*

*Streams of
lava.*

three times as high as the volcano, shot up to light the scene. According to Professor Bassani the quantities of lava which had issued from the new craters had undermined the cone and caused its collapse. The lava came on in a stream five metres high and from forty to three hundred metres wide. On reaching the town it split and encircled it, entering from either side. The work of destruction was leisurely, as the stream flowed no faster than seventy metres an hour. It would sullenly encircle a house, burn all the woodwork, and finally, by its own tremendous weight, push it into a crumbling heap. It would rush into a well with a sharp report and shoot a geyser of water thirty metres high over the bystanders. With a grim irony one of the streams took its way into the very church of the futile St. Anna herself. The Duke and Duchess of Aosta, with their characteristic kindness and ubiquity, were there bringing comfort and courage to the miserable *contadini*, who half worshiped them with a touching devotion. After destroying about one-fourth of the town without loss of life, the streams met and flowed down toward the city of Torre dell' Annunziata, wrecking the beautiful Villa Mango, and stopping just outside of the cemetery to the northeast of the city.

*The earth-
quake.*

Few slept in Naples on that memorable night. The earthquake kept the terrified population in the streets. They rushed half-dressed into the squares and fell on their knees praying and singing frantically. The city swarmed with refugees from the slopes of Vesuvius,

many of whom congregated in the Piazza di Municipio begging for help from the Neapolitan authorities, who responded promptly and generously. In the villages especially to the north and east of the volcano, earthquakes destroyed many buildings on Sunday, and on Monday morning the overwhelming rain of ashes changed in San Giuseppe, Ottaiano, Terzigno, and Somma into a hail of cinders which turned little by little into gravel, then pebbles, then stones as large as goose eggs, which crashed through roof and floor. The wretched people sought refuge in the churches only to be buried under crumbling masonry. The real way to safety lay in flight, and great numbers escaped by holding chairs and tables over their heads as they toiled along the heavy roads. Babes were struck from their mothers' arms. Husbands were forced to leave their mutilated wives by the roadside. Many a gallant deed was done that day. Many a son carried his aged parent Anchises-like from that terrible place. It is estimated that the loss of life in this region on Monday was over two hundred. In San Giuseppe alone one hundred and twenty were killed. *Loss of life.*

In Naples and its environs the fall of ashes on Sunday night was changed by the steam from the great new crater into a fall of heavy mud. The blue bay on Monday morning looked like the Ohio river, and the trees were plastered a hideous dark brown.

In the forenoon I made my way to Torre dell' Annunziata with great difficulty in a cab. The road was full of

*The
fugitives.*

fugitives who constantly implored me to turn back, saying that sure death was just ahead. At San Giovanni I met a procession of boys and girls carrying a cross and a blackened statue of the Madonna back to the Church of the Carmelites in Naples. At times the rain of ashes became so thick that one could breathe only with the greatest difficulty, and photography was almost out of the question. But in spite of their troubles the people were courteous to each other, and I heard no word of complaint on the whole route. Even their usual buoyancy was not wholly gone, and there was always a laugh when any one was hit by the mud which was being shoveled from the housetops into the streets. The boys at least forgot their troubles for the moment in mud ball fights. But all at once terror reigned everywhere, for near the entrance to the Herculaneum excavations the fall of ashes abruptly doubled its intensity, and it grew so dark that I could not see my hand before my face. In five minutes the light returned as suddenly as it had gone, and with some difficulty I persuaded my driver to go ahead. Soon we met a pitiful procession; the women with loosened hair, the men staggering under the weight of five wooden statues from a church in Portici. The women were singing hysterically and beating their breasts. They reminded me of Virgil's excitable Trojan ladies, *crinibus passis*, with their Lares and their Penates. At Torre dell' Annunziata, which was imminently threatened by the lava, the light suddenly

failed us again. The ashes changed to hail. Vesuvius spat, snarled, growled above our heads, while driver, horse, and I sought refuge in a palace portico where four men were crouching over some embers. Their faces showed white underneath the dirt, their teeth chattered, their lips trembled, and their voices were faint with fear. They mumbled that this was the "day of judgment," "the castigation of the Almighty," and then whispered apart among themselves. Happily my driver had quick ears. He overheard some of their words and twitched my sleeve, telling me in a scared voice to come quickly and say nothing. Then we bolted for Naples, while he explained that those men had been planning to disable us and escape in our cab from "judgment." Nothing could prevail on him to take me back.

*Suffering
of refugees.*

On our return trip we took with us as many refugees as possible. There was one aged couple who had come out from Naples to visit for the last time before the end of the world the grave of a parent at Portici. Both were immensely large, and feeble to the verge of collapse, but both had done their pious duty and were now cheerfully ready to "let come what come may." A young fellow from Torre del Greco climbed in and told us that he had lost his family in the panic, and that the thieves had stolen everything they possessed in the world. In his opinion the thieves were worse than the ashes and the lava combined. Later in the day the King and Queen of Italy, with the courage characteristic of the reigning

*Courage of
the King
and Queen.*

house, visited Torre dell' Annunziata for a few minutes, bringing new heart to the inhabitants. They returned to Rome immediately, however, without visiting the more stricken regions.

On Monday evening I started with my friend the American Vice-Consul for Ottaiano on wheels, choosing the northern route to avoid the ashes falling south of the volcano. After leaving Ponticelli the road soon became so bad as to put cycling out of the question. The ashes lay three feet deep everywhere. The moon was full in a clear sky and lit most spectacularly the gigantic gray clouds which Vesuvius kept pouring forth. Almost every third building we saw between S. Anastasia and Ottaiano had been damaged either by the earthquake or the rain of rocks. Two churches at Somma were wrecked and we picked our sad way over the fragments of the campanile which had toppled from the church of Constantinople into the road. This region reminded us most strongly of the last days of Pompeii, for here geology repeated itself. There were three strata like those which covered the Roman city: one of light colored ash, one of black ash, and one of stones. The few inhabitants remaining dared not enter their houses.

*The last
days of
Pompeii
repeated.*

We came upon them here and there cowering over fires in the open, or sleeping in hastily improvised tents so lightly that the slightest sound brought them out with a rush, or wandering hopelessly through the endless ashes. One old *contadino* in particular touched us to the

heart. We had been commiserating with him. "Oh, well," he said, "all that we poor peasants can do is simply to die, and there is an end of it. But the gentleman, the '*padrone*,' finds himself in a yet worse plight. *Ecco*"—he pointed to the buried fields, "his income is cut down. He must retrench. His honor is touched. Ah, *that* is a tragedy, indeed!" My friend told me that such loyalty to the "*padrone*" was common to Neapolitan *contadini*.

At six in the morning, when we had toiled to within a few miles of Ottaiano, the wind began to veer to the northeast and the lowering cloud of ashes and rocks swung slowly, menacingly toward us. We turned incontinently and fled north. The crisis brought out our ingenuity, and after some practise we managed to ride through the vineyards and grain fields by the roadside on the thin crust which had formed toward morning over the ashes. It was like skating on rotten ice. We had to pedal hard while stooping low under the vines; and at the best we broke through about every twenty yards. I suppose it was the first time in history that a wheel had seen such use. But we outdistanced the cloud and arrived in Naples before noon to find that a fresh calamity had just occurred.

The Mercato di Monteoliveto on the Toledo, the largest market-house in Naples, had suddenly collapsed under the enormous weight of ashes on its roof, killing nine people and wounding one hundred and twenty-five. In consequence the Neapolitans were highly

*A ride over
a crust of
ashes.*

*Collapse of
the market-
house in
Naples.*

alarmed for the safety of their city, and after packing the Toledo to gaze through the guarded gates at the ruins they rushed away to carry their most potent images in procession through the stifling streets as a preventive of further disaster, and to work themselves into paroxysms of anxiety for their churches and houses.

This is the eighth day of the eruption, and Professors Bassani and Matteucci declare that the red color of the ash now falling is a sure herald of the end and that all danger is past. The fall, however, is growing constantly thicker, more buildings are collapsing, the trams and trains are stopping, and the food supply is in a deplorable state. It is feared that another day of ashes may have very serious results for the city.

*Bravery
of the
Italians.*

This week of terror and sadness has raised my estimate of the Italian character, for I have seen how superbly he can rise to an emergency. Among all the wretched fugitives I heard no word of complaint, I saw no cowardly act.

[In 1906, the Hungarian Parliament and the Crown reach a compromise. The Anniversary of the Declaration of Greek Independence is celebrated at Athens. The Sixth International Postal Congress meets at Rome. The celebration of the Franklin bicentenary begins in Philadelphia. San Francisco is partly destroyed by earthquake and fire; Congress appropriates \$1,000,000 for relief. Olympic Games are inaugurated in Athens.]

THE SAN FRANCISCO DISASTER

(A.D. 1906)

JACK LONDON

THE earthquake shook down in San Francisco hundreds of thousands of dollars' worth of walls and chimneys. But the conflagration that followed burned up hundreds of millions of dollars' worth of property. There is no estimating within hundreds of millions the actual damage wrought. Not in history has a modern imperial city been so completely destroyed. San Francisco is gone. Nothing remains of it but memories and a fringe of dwelling-houses on its outskirts. Its industrial section is wiped out. Its business section is wiped out. Its social and residential section is wiped out. The factories and warehouses, the great stores and newspaper buildings, the hotels and the palaces of the nabobs, are all gone. There remains only the fringe of dwelling-houses on the outskirts of what was once San Francisco.

*San
Francisco
annihilated.*

Within an hour after the earthquake shock the smoke of San Francisco's burning was a lurid tower visible a

*A three
days' fire.*

hundred miles away. And for three days and nights this lurid tower swayed in the sky, reddening the sun, darkening the day, and filling the land with smoke.

*The earth-
quake.*

On Wednesday morning at a quarter past five came the earthquake. A minute later the flames were leaping upward. In a dozen different quarters south of Market Street, in the working-class ghetto, and in the factories, fires started. There was no opposing the flames. There was no organization, no communication. All the cunning adjustments of a twentieth century city had been smashed by the earthquake. The streets were humped into ridges and depressions, and piled with the *débris* of fallen walls. The steel rails were twisted into perpendicular and horizontal angles. The telephone and telegraph systems were disrupted. And the great water-mains had burst. All the shrewd contrivances and safeguards of man had been thrown out of gear by thirty seconds' twitching of the earthcrust.

By Wednesday afternoon, inside of twelve hours, half the heart of the city was gone. At that time I watched the vast conflagration from out on the bay. It was dead calm. Not a flicker of wind stirred. Yet from every side wind was pouring in upon the city. East, west, north, and south, strong winds were blowing upon the doomed city. The heated air rising made an enormous suck. Thus did the fire of itself build its own colossal chimney through the atmosphere. Day and night this dead calm

continued, and yet, near to the flames, the wind was often half a gale, so mighty was the suck.

*The heated
air creates
a furious
wind.*

The edict which prevented chaos was the following proclamation by Mayor E. E. Schmitz:

"The Federal Troops, the members of the Regular Police Force, and all Special Police Officers have been authorized to KILL any and all persons found engaged in looting or in the commission of any other crime.

*The
Mayor's
proclama-
tion.*

"I have directed all the Gas and Electric Lighting Companies not to turn on Gas or Electricity until I order them to do so; you may therefore expect the city to remain in darkness for an indefinite time.

"I request all citizens to remain at home from darkness until daylight of every night until order is restored.

"I Warn all citizens of the danger of fire from damaged or destroyed chimneys, broken or leaking gas pipes or fixtures, or any like cause."

Wednesday night saw the destruction of the very heart of the city. Dynamite was lavishly used, and many of San Francisco's proudest structures were crumbled by man himself into ruins, but there was no withstanding the onrush of the flames. Time and again successful stands were made by the fire-fighters, and every time the flames flanked around on either side, or came up from the rear, and turned to defeat the hard-won victory.

*Dynamite
used.*

An enumeration of the buildings destroyed would be a directory of San Francisco. An enumeration of the

buildings undestroyed would be a line and several addresses. An enumeration of the deeds of heroism would stock a library and bankrupt the Carnegie medal fund. An enumeration of the dead—will never be made. All vestiges of them were destroyed by the flames. The number of the victims of the earthquake will never be known. South of Market Street, where the loss of life was particularly heavy, was the first to catch fire.

*Terrible
loss of life.*

Remarkable as it may seem, Wednesday night, while the whole city crashed and roared into ruin, was a quiet night. There were no crowds. There was no shouting and yelling. There was no hysteria, no disorder. I passed Wednesday night in the part of the advancing flames, and in all those terrible hours I saw not one woman who wept, not one man who was excited, not one person who was in the slightest degree panic-stricken.

*Calmness
of the
citizens.*

Before the flames, throughout the night, fled tens of thousands of homeless ones. Some were wrapped in blankets. Others carried bundles of bedding and dear household treasures. Sometimes a whole family was harnessed to a carriage or delivery wagon that was weighted down with their possessions. Baby buggies, toy wagons, and go-carts were used as trucks, while every other person was dragging a trunk. Yet everybody was gracious. The most perfect courtesy obtained. Never in all San Francisco's history were her people so kind and courteous as on this night of terror.

*Behavior
of the
victims.*

All night these tens of thousands fled before the flames.

Many of them, the poor people from the labor ghetto, had fled all day as well. They had left their homes burdened with possessions. Now and again they lightened up, flinging out upon the street clothing and treasures they had dragged for miles.

They held on longest to their trunks, and over these trunks many a strong man broke his heart that night. The hills of San Francisco are steep, and up these hills, mile after mile, were the trunks dragged. Everywhere were trunks, with across them lying their exhausted owners, men and women. Before the march of the flames *The fugitives,* were flung picket lines of soldiers. And a block at a time, as the flames advanced, these pickets retreated. One of their tasks was to keep the trunk-pullers moving. The exhausted creatures, stirred on by the menace of bayonets, would arise and struggle up the steep pavements, pausing from weakness every five or ten feet.

Often, after surmounting a heart-breaking hill, they would find another wall of flame advancing upon them at right angles and be compelled to change anew the line of their retreat. In the end, completely played out, after toiling for a dozen hours like giants, thousands of them were compelled to abandon their trunks. Here the shopkeepers and soft members of the middle class were at a disadvantage. But the working-men dug holes in vacant lots and backyards and buried their trunks.

At nine o'clock Wednesday evening I walked down through the very heart of the city. I walked through

*A doomed
district.*

miles and miles of magnificent buildings and towering skyscrapers. Here was no fire. All was in perfect order. The police patrolled the streets. Every building had its watchman at the door. And yet it was doomed, all of it. There was no water. The dynamite was giving out. And at right angles two different conflagrations were sweeping down upon it.

*In the
heart of
San
Francisco.*

At one o'clock in the morning I walked down through the same section. Everything still stood intact. There was no fire. And yet there was a change. A rain of ashes was falling. The watchmen at the doors were gone. The police had been withdrawn. There were no firemen, no fire-engines, no men fighting with dynamite. The district had been absolutely abandoned. I stood at the corner of Kearney and Market, in the very innermost heart of San Francisco. Kearney Street was deserted. Half a dozen blocks away it was burning on both sides. The street was a wall of flame. And against this wall of flame, silhouetted sharply, were two United States cavalymen sitting their horses, calmly watching. That was all. Not another person was in sight. In the intact heart of the city two troopers sat their horses and watched.

Surrender was complete. There was no water. The sewers had long since been pumped dry. There was no dynamite. Another fire had broken out further uptown, and now from three sides conflagrations were sweeping down. The fourth side had been burned earlier in the

day. In that direction stood the tottering walls of the Examiner building, the burned-out Call building, the smoldering ruins of the Grand Hotel, and the gutted, devastated, dynamited Palace Hotel.

The following will illustrate the sweep of the flames and the inability of men to calculate their spread. At eight o'clock Wednesday evening I passed through Union Square. It was packed with refugees. Thousands of them had gone to bed on the grass. Government tents had been set up, supper was being cooked, and the refugees were lining up for free meals.

At half-past one in the morning three sides of Union Square were in flames. The fourth side, where stood the great St. Francis Hotel, was still holding out. An hour later, ignited from top and sides, the St. Francis was flaming heavenward. Union Square, heaped high with mountains of trunks, was deserted. Troops, refugees, and all had retreated.

*The sweep
of the
flames.*

It was at Union Square that I saw a man offering a thousand dollars for a team of horses. He was in charge of a truck piled high with trunks from some hotel. It had been hauled here into what was considered safety, and the horses had been taken out. The flames were on three sides of the Square, and there were no horses.

Also, at this time, standing beside the truck, I urged a man to seek safety in flight. He was all but hemmed in by several conflagrations. He was an old man and he was on crutches. Said he: "To-day is my birthday. Last

night I was worth thirty thousand dollars. I bought five bottles of wine, some delicate fish, and other things for my birthday dinner. I have had no dinner, and all I own are these crutches."

I convinced him of his danger and started him limping on his way. An hour later, from a distance, I saw the truck-load of trunks burning merrily in the middle of the street.

On Thursday morning, at a quarter past five, just twenty-four hours after the earthquake, I sat on the steps of a small residence on Nob Hill. With me sat Japanese, Italians, Chinese, and negroes—a bit of the cosmopolitan flotsam of the wreck of the city. All about were the palaces of the nabob pioneers of Forty-nine. To the east and south, at right angles, were advancing two mighty walls of flame.

I went inside with the owner of the house on the steps of which I sat. He was cool and cheerful and hospitable. "Yesterday morning," he said, "I was worth six hundred thousand dollars. This morning this house is all I have left. It will go in fifteen minutes." He pointed to a large cabinet. "That is my wife's collection of china. This rug upon which we stand is a present. It cost fifteen hundred dollars. Try that piano. Listen to its tone. There are few like it. There are no horses. The flames will be here in fifteen minutes."

Outside, the old Mark Hopkins residence, a palace, was just catching fire. The troops were falling back

Twenty-four hours after the earthquake.

Refugees driven out by troops.

and driving the refugees before them. From every side came the roaring of flames, the crashing of walls, and the detonations of dynamite.

I passed out of the house. Day was trying to dawn through the smoke-pall. A sickly light was creeping over the face of things. Once only the sun broke through the smoke-pall, blood-red, and showing quarter its usual size. The smoke-pall itself, viewed from beneath, was a rose color that pulsed and fluttered with lavender shades. Then it turned to mauve and yellow and dun. There was no sun. And so dawned the second day on stricken San Francisco.

*The dawn
of the sec-
ond day.*

An hour later I was creeping past the shattered dome of the City Hall. Than it there was no better exhibit of the destructive force of the earthquake. Most of the stones had been shaken from the great dome, leaving standing the naked framework of steel. Market Street was piled high with the wreckage, and across the wreckage lay the overthrown pillars of the City Hall shattered into short crosswise sections.

This section of the city, with the exception of the Mint and the Post-Office, was already a waste of smoking ruins. Here and there through the smoke, creeping warily under the shadows of tottering walls, emerged occasional men and women. It was like the meeting of the handful of survivors after the day of the end of the world.

On Mission Street lay a dozen steers, in a neat row

stretching across the street, just as they had been struck down by the flying ruins of the earthquake. The fire had passed through afterward and roasted them. The human dead had been carried away before the fire came. At another place on Mission Street I saw a milk wagon. A steel telegraph pole had smashed down sheer through the driver's seat and crushed the front wheels. The milk cans lay scattered around.

All day Thursday and all Thursday night, all day Friday and Friday night, the flames still raged.

Friday night saw the flames finally conquered though not until Russian Hill and Telegraph Hill had been swept and three-quarters of a mile of wharves and docks had been licked up.

*Fighting
the fire.*

The great stand of the fire-fighters was made Thursday night on Van Ness Avenue. Had they failed here, the comparatively few remaining houses of the city would have been swept.

Here were the magnificent residences of the second generation of San Francisco nabobs, and these, in a solid zone, were dynamited down across the path of the fire. Here and there the flames leaped the zone, but these fires were beaten out, principally by the use of wet blankets and rugs.

San Francisco, at the present time, is like the crater of a volcano, around which are camped tens of thousands of refugees. At the Presidio alone are at least twenty thousand. All the surrounding cities and towns are



SAN FRANCISCO AFTER THE EARTHQUAKE (*Pages 175-185*)

FROM A PHOTOGRAPH

jammed with the homeless ones, where they are being
 cared for by the relief committees. The refugees were
 carried free by the railroads to any point they wished to
 go, and it is estimated that over one hundred thousand
 people have left the peninsula on which San Francisco
 stood. The Government has the situation in hand and
 thanks to the immediate relief given by the whole United
 States, there is not the slightest possibility of a famine.
 The bankers and business men have already set about
 making preparations to rebuild San Francisco.

*Plans to
 rebuild
 San
 Francisco.*

WHY I REVIVED THE OLYMPIC GAMES

(A.D. 1906)

PIERRE DE COUBERTIN

IF in reviving the Olympic Games I had merely sought to restore one of the noblest and most interesting of ancient institutions, I do not think I should have needed excuse, for such an ambition would certainly have been both comprehensible and legitimate. It might, however, have been reasonably characterized as a fanciful and superfluous undertaking. There is so much necessary work to be done to supply the myriad needs of our day that we ought not to waste ourselves in unnecessary effort. I have in mind a saying of the great Dr. Arnold about the cultivation of some rare plants. "How interesting," he said, "to give oneself up to this if only one's life could be twice as long as it really is!"

Reason for revival of the Olympic Games.

But the Olympic Games are in no way comparable to the cultivation of rare plants. It is my profound conviction that they are one of the corner-stones of progress and health for the youth of our day. Certainly there

Progress and health.

have been abuses, particularly in England and the United States, and it is always right to combat abuses; but this does not affect the value of the fundamental principle underlying the practice of athletic sports—that there is nothing else upon which young men can employ their strength in their hours of recreation and liberty with such advantage both moral and physical. It is not at the moment when the whole civilized world from Petersburg to Madrid and from Tokio to Punta Arenas is adopting Anglo-Saxon ideas on this point that Anglo-Saxons themselves are likely to renounce them.

Well, then, the athletic life of modern youth demands the revival of the Olympic Games; and in that conviction I called for their revival, thinking not merely of France or England, Greece or Italy, but of humanity in general. But, I may be asked what difference do you make between the Olympic Games and what are now-a-days called world-championships? Were the games of antiquity anything else than our competitions for world championships, on their own lines, and taking into account the then meaning of the word "world"? I do not deny that, and I agree that world-championships do form part of the Olympic Games; nevertheless the Olympic Games *are* "something else" as well, and it is just this "something else" that matters, as it is not to be found in any other variety of athletic competition.

For centuries athleticism, its home in Olympia, remained pure and magnificent. There States and cities

met in the persons of their young men, who, imbued with a sense of the moral grandeur of the Games, went to them in a spirit of almost religious reverence. Around them were assembled men of letters and of the arts, ready to celebrate the victories of their energy and muscle; and these incomparable spectacles were also the delight of the populace. No doubt low ambitions and mean passions were present; there is no human assembly without them, no human institution which they do not infest. But despite them the whole result was something grandiose and strong which dominated Hellenic civilization, influencing happily and gloriously the youth of the country and through them the entire nation.

*Moral
grandeur
of the
original
games.*

Such were the Olympic Games of ancient times; such ought to be those of our own day. I perceived clearly the danger run by athleticism in an atmosphere of advertisement and bluff, such as our modern atmosphere is apt to be in a society where effort is generally applied to the quest for material gain, where consequently athletic sports are likely to be commercially exploited by the organizers of public exhibitions. I saw the necessity for re-establishing the Olympic Games as a supreme consecration of the cult of athletics practised in the purest spirit of true sport, proudly, joyfully, and loyally. But to reach a realization of the idea many stages had to be travelled, and naturally this took time. First of all the new games must be exclusively modern in form; to revive chariot-races, for instance, would only have been

*A modern
pro-
gramme
chosen.*

to institute a hippodrome devoid of interest for the mass of young men, and to make mere actors of the participants; while, as modern sports are very numerous, an overloaded programme would result. Secondly, the new Games must be international; that is to say the competitors must be the best representatives of civilized nations. In ancient times they were already international in the sense that there was as much difference between the citizens of the various cities of Greece, Italy, and Egypt as there could be now between an Englishman, a Spaniard, and an Italian. These cities readily went to war with one another, and even in times of peace their rivalries were acute. But in our days despite the rapidity and number of means of transport, it is not easy to bring together periodically representatives of all countries, because of the difficulties they encounter in leaving their daily occupations, and in finding, either wholly or in part, the necessary contingent expenses.

It was done, however, in 1896, 1900, and 1904, not to speak of the Athenian series of games inaugurated in 1906. Anyone who studies the ancient Games will perceive that their deep significance was due to two principal elements: beauty and reverence. If the modern Games are to exercise the influence I desire for them they must in their turn show beauty and inspire reverence—a beauty and a reverence infinitely surpassing anything hitherto realized in the most important athletic contests of our day. The grandeur and dignity of processions and

*Beauty and
reverence.*

attitudes, the impressive splendor of ceremonies, the concurrence of all the arts, popular emotion and generous sentiment, must in all sorts collaborate together. This cannot be achieved by a single Olympiad, nor even by three or four; it will need at least a quarter of a century. But, then, when one aspires to create or re-create institutions of this magnitude, the first condition is not to be in a hurry.

Here again, moreover, we must be resolutely modern. Let us have no clumsy and tactless restitutions. But it is possible to draw inspiration from the past without copying it. To take one example from many: at Olympia the competitors—and it was certainly not one of the least impressive episodes of the Games—assembled before the statue of Jupiter and took solemn oath that they would compete fairly and loyally, swearing also that they were without reproach and worthy to meet their adversaries. Jupiter is no more, and we have lost faith in statues. But I imagine the athletes of the future taking oath before the Games each upon the flag of his own country, and in presence of the flags of other lands affirming solemnly that they have always been loyal and honorable in sport, and that it is in a spirit of loyalty and honor they approach the Olympic contests. Would not this provide a scene of dignified beauty fit to inspire actors and spectators alike with the most noble and generous emotions? And similarly, if for vulgar choruses and bands performing selections from operettas we were

*Inspira-
tion drawn
from the
past.*

*The two
poles of
human life
—art and
sport.*

to substitute an interpretation by great massed choirs of masterpieces by a Handel or a Gluck, should we not be confirming in the completest manner the marriage of Arts and Sports—that is to say of muscular strength and creative imagination, those two poles of human life?

*The first
conference.*

In this order of ideals all is yet to be done; but much is prepared in the path of progress. The International Olympic Committee, in summoning in 1906 a conference which met at the Comédie Française in Paris, and discussed the best means for henceforward drawing together Sports, Arts, and Letters, gave the signal for a movement of high importance in this line. Henceforth the scattered efforts of artists can be directed toward a definite aim. Sculptors and musicians have already grasped the possibility of seeking new inspiration in athleticism. At this moment all Brussels is admiring the splendid group "*Lutteurs à Cheval*," from the chisel of the great Belgian sculptor, Jacques de Lalaing; Paris has been hearing with emotion Augusta Holmès's fine oratorio, entitled "*Ludus pro Patria*"; and the ears of Athenians still ring with the harmonies of the "Olympic Hymn" composed by the Greek musician Samara. Architects have meanwhile, although it is true but timidly, attempted to evolve plans for gymnasiums modelled on antique ideals. When he died, Bartholdi, the celebrated sculptor, left the International Olympic Committee the designs for a "*Monument des Sports*," which should be one of the finest works of art that the

"Monu-
ment des
Sports."

world has seen. On another side, dramatic art is by degrees accustoming itself once more to the open air, and in many different countries performances recalling the theatre of antiquity take place. Finally, in Switzerland the well-known musician Jaques-Dalcroze is striving with admirable zeal to reform choregraphic art, degraded as it has been by the vulgarity and stupidity of our modern dances.

Thus on all sides individual efforts are ready to converge toward an ideal of general harmony. The arts are drawing together; sound, line, color, and form seem to be preparing to associate once more in movement, which is living beauty, and thus to constitute the spectacular element of the modern Olympiad. With their aid may be framed a worthy setting for the Games—a setting in which shall move athletes well prepared to assist in the great festival, and conscious of the glory it confers on them.

[In 1906, the remains of John Paul Jones are interred in Annapolis. A tornado nearly destroys Bellevue, Tex. Ellen Terry celebrates her jubilee in London. There is an International Exhibition in Milan. Labor demonstrations occur in London and Paris. President Roosevelt attacks the Standard Oil Company. An accident on Pennsylvania Railroad at Clover Creek Junction kills ten. A bomb thrown at the Governor-General of Moscow. The Governor-General of Kieff assassinated. The First Russian Duma meets in St. Petersburg.]

*First
Russian
Duma
meets.*

THE FIRST RUSSIAN PARLIAMENT¹

(A.D. 1906)

A. S. RAPPOPORT

FOR a moment it seemed as if the Duma would never assemble, as if the plan had been abandoned. When will the Duma be convened? was the question. Soon—later—some day—never—were the answers given. But no, the reactionary party was too wise for that. We must combat Liberalism and Democracy with their own weapons.

*When will
the Duma
meet?*

Let the reader now follow me into the midst of the historical assembly, cast a glance at the motley crowd, and gage the atmosphere of the Tauride Palace. He will soon find that there is a storm in the air, that he is treading on mines, into which the enemy is only too ready to throw the fatal spark.

In the first instance, the Duma can have no deep nor far-reaching influence, as it can hardly be called a

*limita-
tions of
the Duma*

¹ This article, written at the time of assembling the first Russian Duma, describes the conditions existing at that time.

truly representative national assembly impersonating the will of the people. The workmen have practically no deputies in the Tauride Palace. On the one hand the majority of workmen and artisans, who are recruited from among the peasant class, but who work in towns and cities during a certain period of the year, were deprived of the privilege of voting, and took no part in the elections. As workmen, living in the towns, they had forfeited their rights to vote with the peasants, while on account of their mere temporary sojourn in the towns they were not recognized as townsmen, and were thus unable to vote with the latter. Those, on the other hand, who were admitted to vote had to pass through the three-story system, the triple crucible, so that their votes never reached the Duma. Many, again, were either too frightened to record their votes or were simply prevented by the Government from doing so. As regards these, one need only think of the numerous arrests that accompanied the Duma elections. Over 80,000 voters were filling the various State prisons, while the people were electing their representatives for the National Assembly. Wherever a candidate was nominated for election by the workmen, he was speedily arrested under some pretext or other. In many cases the electors, in a spirit of bitter irony, nominated some invalid or cripple, some lame or blind harmless individual whom, they said, the Government would mercifully spare.

Many provinces, it must further be borne in mind,

*Workmen
and
peasants.*

*Arrest of
workmen's
candidates.*

have sent no representatives as yet. The elections have not yet taken place. And when the newly elected members arrive some day on the banks of the Neva, who knows whether they will not find the gates of the Tauride Palace locked or Cossacks barring their way, shouting: "*Tee Kooda?*" (Whither art thou going?) Thus Siberia and the Caucasus, with a population of more than twenty millions, have no representatives in the Duma. The two provinces, with such important centres as Baku and Tiflis, are still in a state of siege and martial law. It was a very wise precaution on the part of the Government to prevent Siberia and the Caucasus from sending delegates to the Duma. Siberia, where thousands and thousands of exiles, intellectuals, and revolutionaries are dwelling, is too much imbued with the spirit of liberalism and hostility to the existing order of things to be trusted. The representatives, arriving from the snow-covered wastes of Siberia, would bring the glacial air of suffering and the fiery spirit of vengeance into the midst of the Duma. There is, also, no one, for the present, to represent the interests of Armenians and other hostile tribes in the Russian Parliament. As far as the peasants are concerned, they can hardly be said to have been electing their members quite freely and in full cognizance of facts. They were compelled by the *Zemsky natshalniks* to vote separately, while all orators attempting to explain matters to the ignorant *muzhik* were quickly silenced. In many of the southwestern provinces

*Provinces
not rep-
resented.*

*Hostile
tribes not
repre-
sented.*

*Expulsion
of Jews.*

Jews, arriving in the villages during the elections, were, without any further inquiry, immediately expelled. Their mere presence became dangerous, since a conversation with them might enlighten the peasant, who at all costs had to be kept in the dark. I will not dwell on the gagging of the press and other restrictive measures. The following figures will, however, give some idea of the rigorous manner in which the restrictions were systematically carried out. During the short period of one month, from December 25, 1905, to January 25, 1906, seventy-eight journals were suspended in seventeen towns, and fifty-eight editors arrested. A state of siege was proclaimed in sixty-two localities and that of extraordinary police supervision in forty-one others. [Russian Correspondence, No. 17, February 17, 1906.] The Duma, one must therefore admit, will have no right to speak in the name of the people, as its authority is not and will not be recognized by a considerable portion of the nation.

*Repressive
measures.*

From the general aspect of the Duma I will now pass to its constituent elements and to the various social groups that form the present Assembly in the Tauride Palace.

*Parties in
the Duma.*

The first and foremost, by far the most important, compact group in the Duma is that of the Constitutional Democrats, numbering about 200 members. It is from among the Constitutional Democrats that the President and the bureau were elected. A close analysis, however,

of the members belonging to this party will easily convince the observer that even were they animated by the best wishes to act unanimously it will be impossible for them to do so. They have very few interests in common, they belong to different worlds, to different classes of society, they uphold quite different traditions, and are far from being animated by the same aspirations or from cherishing the same ideals. Their *Weltanschauung*, their views, will soon have to be put to the test, and a clash, or fatal conflict, is inevitable. The left wing of this group consists of the so-called *intelligenzia*, lawyers, physicians, teachers, and students. Most of them are radicals, revolutionaries inclined to Nihilism, dreaming of a republican government. Most of them are the members of the Union of Unions. They were the minor *Zemstvo*-workers. Their personal interests are centred in the towns, they have no land, and are consequently likely to be *intransigent* on the agrarian question. Side by side with them—for the present at least—sit the progressive, liberal landowners, members of the nobility. They form the right wing of the Constitutional Democratic party.

*Radical
members.*

Education, tradition, surroundings, *milieu*, and environment have tended to produce a different trend of thought in them, more moderate, more conservative, than that of their co-partisans. They are mostly monarchically inclined. Their interests are almost entirely rural, their very existence is closely connected with the land question. Yonder, again, is the group of peasants,

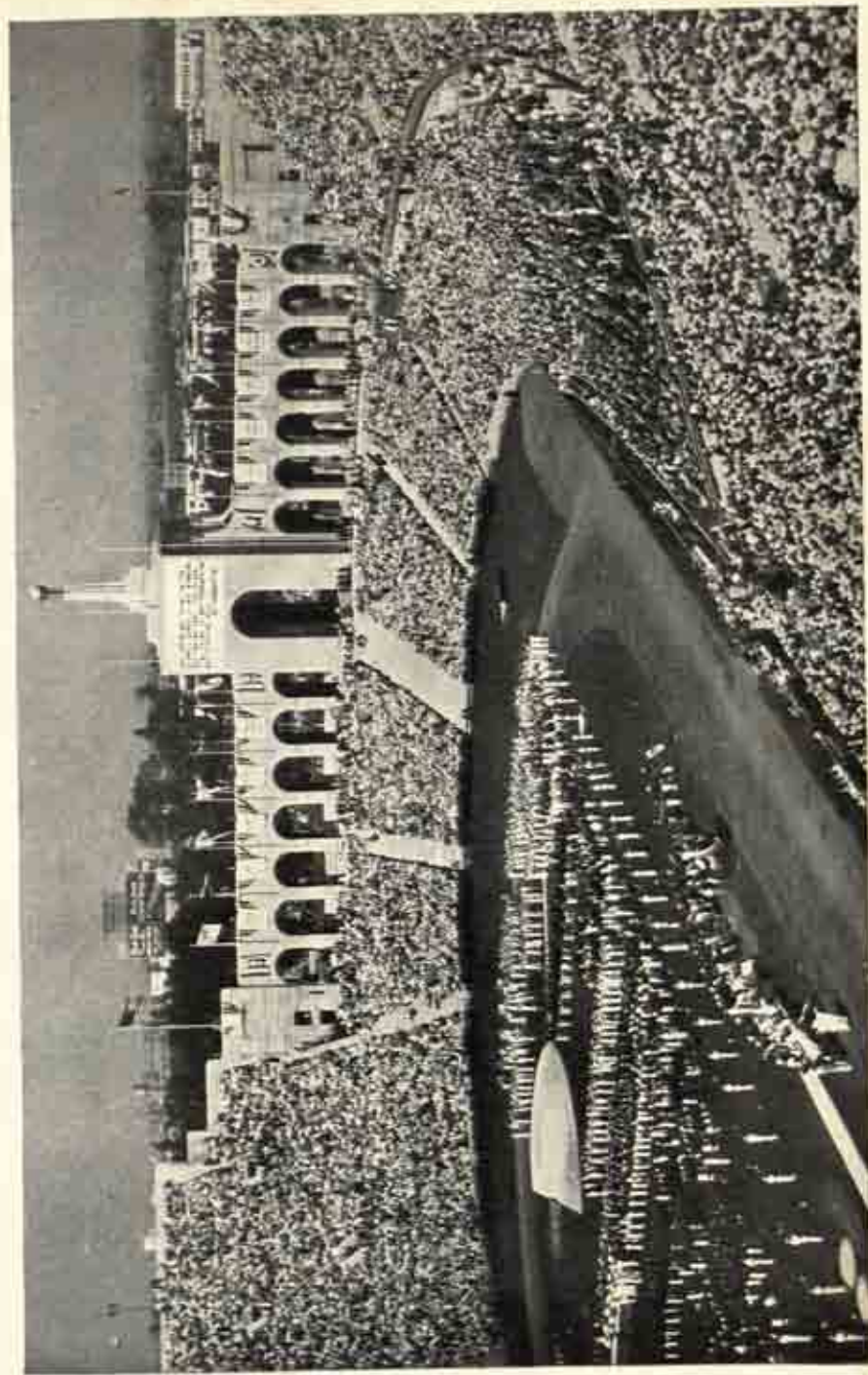
*Lack of
effective
unity.*

of long-bearded and shaggy *muzhiks*. They are all inspired by the same desire, and cherish the same ideals; they will act unanimously, one would think. I doubt it, however. They, too, belong to different schools. Some of them have suffered terribly, in person and property, from the Government; they remember the lashes, the *nagaikas*, the cruelty of *tshinovniks* and bureaucrats, of police and of Cossacks. Theirs is not the gospel of love, but that of hate. It is the gospel of hate and destruction which they will preach; hate against the oppressors, destruction of the existing order of things. "Deliver us from the rule of the Cossacks and of the police," is the sole mandate many of these deputies have received from their electors. Abolition of the present régime—*tabula rasa*—is their sole program; and, in the circumstances, it is, perhaps, the wisest program, too.

The
gospel of
hate.

[Vice-Admiral Kummah assassinated in St. Petersburg. General Stoessel court-martialed for surrender at Port Arthur. Forest fires in Wisconsin and Michigan. Inauguration of the Simplon Tunnel. W. H. Stuart, American Consul at Batoum, Russia, assassinated. Insurrection against Japan breaks out in Korea. Revolutionists invade Guatemala. King Alfonso of Spain marries Princess Ena of Battenberg, and bomb thrown at the wedding kills many people. The *Lusitania* is launched. The Evangelical Alliance celebrates its Diamond Jubilee in London. The British win a victory over

Marriage
of the King
of Spain.



COURTESY, 8TH OLYMPIAD OFFICIAL PHOTOS

PANORAMIC VIEW OF THE OLYMPIC GAMES AT LOS ANGELES, 1932 (Pages 187-193)

FROM A PHOTOGRAPH


the Zulus. Cobbler Marakesh of Morocco, murderer of
36 women is walled up alive. The Wellman Arctic ex-
pedition sails from Antwerp. President Sakay, Ladrone
leader in the Philippines, surrenders.]

*Arctic
expedition
sails.*

HAAKON VII., KING OF NORWAY

(A.D. 1906)

HROLF WISBY

 ONCE more the ancient throne of Norway in the Drontheim Cathedral, vacant for more than five hundred years, will hold a sovereign. Prince Charles of Denmark has accepted the Storthing's proffer of the crown, and the coronation will take place, probably on New Year's Day, 1906.

Who is this man Charles, what can he do, and why was he chosen by a parliament which has always shown republican tendencies?

Prince Charles is a young man of thirty-three summers, of gentlemanly appearance, in excellent health, and of a very easy-going, liberal turn of mind. He is by nature well fitted to rule over the stubborn Norsemen, who do not mind the harness so long as they don't feel the whip. The very thing that is going to make Charles popular in Norway before he shows his face there, is the fact that he, as a typical "sailor prince," is considered a proper and natural connecting link be-

Characteristics and ancestry of the King.

tween the old Viking spirit of feudal Norway and her present-day peaceful love of the sea. Another circumstance in favor of Charles is that he understands the language of the Norwegian people, and their traditions and history are part of those of his own country, Denmark, under the dominion of which Norway remained for four centuries.

Charles is the second son of the Crown Prince of Denmark, whom he strongly resembles and this also counts in his favor, for the Crown Prince is a scion of the House of Sonderburg-Glücksburg, whereas the Crown Princess is a daughter of the Bernadotte, King Carl XV. of Sweden—and the Bernadottes were never popular in Norway.

*The new
Queen.*

Charles married, about a decade ago, the second and favorite daughter of the King of England, the Princess Maud Alexandra, with whom he fell in love at the Danish court. Through this marriage he brings with him to the Norse people a practical guarantee that the enormous Norwegian coast line will never lack the protection of the British fleet in time of trouble. Strategically considered, Charles is a very important acquisition for Norway. Diplomatically his family relationship with foreign courts is a political asset by which Norway is destined to benefit in more ways than one. Here is the family roster of Prince Charles, the future King Haakon VII. of Norway:

Father and Mother.—Crown Prince and Crown Princess of Denmark.

Grandfather.—King Christian of Denmark.

Uncles.—King of England, King of Greece, Duke of Cumberland, Prince Waldemar of Denmark.

Aunts.—Queen Mother of England, Empress-Dowager of Russia, Queen of Greece, Princess Marie d'Orléans.

Cousins.—Czar of Russia, Prince of Wales, Prince George of Greece, Prince Aage of Denmark.

Brothers-in-Law.—Prince Frederick of Schaumburg-Lippe (Germany), Prince Charles of Sweden.

Brothers and Sisters.—Prince Christian of Denmark, heir-apparent; the Princes Harald and Gustav of Denmark; the Princesses Ingeborg, Thyra, and Dagmar.

It is a peculiar coincidence that the first child in the family of the Danish Crown Prince and the first child in King Edward's family to wear the sceptre as Sovereign, is a second and not a first child, and both owe their success to the same fortunate accident—namely, Norway's breach with Sweden. *The King's relatives.*

The official titles of King and Queen will be as follows in Norwegian:

Kong Haakon den Syvende af Norge (King Haakon the Seventh of Norway.)

Dronning Maud af Norge og Prinsesse af Storbrit-

tanien og Irland (Queen Maud of Norway and Princess of Great Britain and Ireland).

Charles loses his baptismal name and his hereditary title as a Prince of Denmark, whereas Maud retains both and gets a queenship in the bargain. This is the effect of an old Court ordinance in England, which prescribes that a princess of Great Britain and Ireland in marrying shall have the right to append this most envied of all English feminine titles to whatever name or title she may receive by marriage.

The Queen-to-be of Norway is a pretty, stately girl who seems to be quite devoted to her husband, though it was said before her marriage that she was in love with a British noble who did not rank high enough to marry her. She has been reared almost exclusively in the atmosphere of Court life, and takes only a perfunctory interest in the out-door life, which her husband has made his by preference. Very likely the fresh breezes of Norway will have a salubrious effect on Princess Maud. The couple have a two-year old son, Alexander, who will be the Crown Prince of Norway, and who as King will probably wear the title of Harald IV., as the Haralds and Haakons, it has been decided, will hereafter alternate on Norway's Court roster.

*Alexander,
Crown
Prince of
Norway.*

[In 1906, President Amador of Panama is re-elected. Harry K. Thaw shoots Stanford White in Madison Square Roof Garden. Congress passes railroad rate regu-

lation, meat inspection, pure food, and Lake Erie and Ohio River ship canal franchise acts. English boat train is derailed at Salisbury (27 Americans killed). The French Parliament vindicates Alfred Dreyfus to the army and a duel follows. Honduras declares war against Guatemala. Earthquake shocks occur in the Rio Grande Valley. Gen. Stoessel is condemned to death. A Central American Peace Treaty is signed on the U. S. Cruiser *Marblehead*. Czar dissolves the Duma and proclaims martial law in St. Petersburg. There is a disastrous fire in Leeds, England. Stolypin becomes Russian premier. Pan-American Conference convenes in Rio Janeiro.]

*Czar dis-
solves
Duma.*

THE PAN-AMERICAN CONGRESS

(A.D. 1906)

FERGUS CRANE

IT would seem that for Latin America to attain greatness it would be necessary for her to develop in all her nations that degree of commercial honor which the great powers of the world to-day are disposed to exact—a condition to which some of the republics south of the Caribbean Sea have attained in full measure and toward which several of the others are aspiring with the active support of their business peoples. *Latin America.*

Financial reorganization, including plans for refunding the public debt, and some reasonable degree of certainty that the future will not witness a repetition of the era of profligate bond issues by conscienceless dictators whose private purse absorbed the bulk of the proceeds of such issues through contracts, syndicates and nepotism, must come in the case of more than one republic to the south of us before the Washington Government may be freed of anxiety over the peril of imbroglios between European nations on the one hand and Western republics on the other.

Another means by which Latin America has become enmeshed in debt lies in the operations of exploiting syndicates of foreign industrial companies, which have usually acquired their first equities in the form of unusually broad concessions obtained from dictators, whose affection for their native shores did not suffice to make them safeguard the interests of the posterity of their fellow-countrymen. In more than a few instances there has been some reason to suspect that foreign promoters of the natural resources of Latin America have followed what might be described as the line of least resistance, and in so doing have dealt with political interests which failed of patriotic indorsement. Such creditors, whose course has been scrupulously just, should not be classed with financial adventurers in the eyes of the stable business communities of the nations which attracted their investments.

That South American finance is beginning to interest this country largely is one of the notes of the day. Wall Street financiers are, many of them, hoping that the Washington Government will prove successful in its amendment of the Monroe Doctrine. Frank A. Vanderlip, vice-president of the National City Bank of New York, in an article published in the *New York Times*, said:

"The Germans and the English have the lead in South American national finance, but with the growing disposition of our investing public to become interested in

*Wall
Street's
interest in
Latin
America.*

government issues, and with the clearer understanding of the responsibilities which must follow our declaration of the principles of the Monroe Doctrine, there seems to be every reason to anticipate that we shall rapidly take a position of importance in connection with the financial administration of several South American countries."

The Rio conference will be the third congress of American republics in which the United States have taken part. The first of these was the conference over which James G. Blaine presided at Washington in the winter of 1889-90. The second was held at Mexico City in 1901 and was attended by Secretary Hay. A sentimental point lies in the fact that the first of these three congresses was held at the capital seat of Anglo-Saxon institutions on this continent and the second in the Spanish-American capital of Porfirio Diaz, while the third will assemble in the chief city of Portuguese traditions and civilization in this hemisphere, thus paying alternate tribute to the three dominant influences in the new world.

There was a much earlier Pan-American Congress, however. During the presidency of John Quincy Adams, Mexico, Central America and Columbia (then New Granada) invited the United States to send delegates to an international conference of American republics to be held at Panama. The United States Senate debated until March before confirming the nominations by President Adams of Richard C. Anderson of Kentucky and John

*The first
Pan-
American
Congress.*

Sergeant of Pennsylvania as "envoys extraordinary and ministers plenipotentiary to the assembly of American nations at Panama." One of the envoys died en route to Panama, and the other arrived there after the adjournment of the congress.

Reiterating the Monroe Doctrine, the Pan-American dictum of the preceding administration, President Adams in sending the nominations of the Panama envoys to the Senate had this to say regarding the feebleness of this hemisphere:

"We have laid the foundation of our future intercourse with them in the broadest principles of reciprocity and the most cordial feelings of fraternal friendships. To extend those principles to all our commercial relations with them and to hand down that friendship to future ages is congenial to the highest policy of the Union, as it will be to that of all those nations and their posterity."

On October 2, 1889, representatives of all the independent nations of North, Central, and South America and the Republic of Haiti assembled in Washington. This congress was the result of an invitation sent by Secretary Blaine to these countries to discuss their intercontinental interests and, primarily, to promote commercial intercourse. The effectiveness of the regulations and the good will of the congress are reflected in commercial statistics. In 1890 the volume of our annual exports to other American republics aggregated \$60,000,000, while

*Pan-
American
Congress of
1889-90.*

last year our exports to these countries reached \$200,000,000.

The chief tangible work of the Washington conference was the establishment of "The International Union of American Republics for the Prompt Collection and Distribution of Commercial Information." Under the supervision of our Department of State and in connection with this international union, the Bureau of American Republics was organized at Washington, in order to issue bulletins from time to time, containing information useful to producers, manufacturers and merchants interested in the development of New World commerce, including customs tariffs, official circulars, international treaties and conventions, local regulations as to commerce and navigation, and wherever practicable, statistics as to the resources, products, and commerce of American republics.

Other projects outlined at the Washington conference, *Projects of 1890.* which continued in session until April 19, 1890, comprised a continental plan of arbitration eliminating wars of conquest, the formulation of a body of American international law, the recommendation of arbitration for the settlement of disputes between American republics and the nations of Europe, an outline of the proposal to build an intercontinental railway, which has since enlisted the approval of Andrew Carnegie and Henry G. Davis, a plan to subsidize Atlantic and Pacific steamship lines between North and South America, the elaboration

of reciprocal trade agreements and a plea for uniformity in customs and sanitary regulations.

*Congress
of 1901.*

John Hay represented the United States at the Mexico City congress of 1901, which accomplished seemingly far less than its Washington predecessor. Three achievements, however, marked the sessions of this assembly. The nations agreed much more fully upon the conditions designed to govern the construction and operation of the proposed intercontinental railway. A resolution was adopted, calling for a Pan-American conference once every five years. Thirdly, and this was, perhaps, more important than the provision for future congresses at regular intervals, a treaty for the arbitration of all pecuniary claims.

*Rio Janeiro
program.*

When the delegates assemble in Rio Janeiro shortly, many detailed problems await their discussion, besides the Roosevelt and Root development of the Monroe Doctrine, the expediency of a system of monitor republics and the Calvo Doctrine of Latin America. From the previous congresses the Rio delegates will inherit the intercontinental plan and the simplification of the customs restrictions, consular laws and quarantine regulations of the republics.

At the head of the formal delegates of the United States to the Rio congress is William I. Buchanan, who has been the American minister to Argentina and to Panama. Another of the delegates will be Tulio Larri-
naga, Porto Rican Commissioner to the Congress of the

United States, a recognition of the interest of Porto Rico in our intercontinental relations. Completing the delegation are James S. Harlan, who has served an attorney-generalship in Porto Rico, Professor L. S. Rowe, of the University of Pennsylvania, and Van Leer Polk, of Tennessee.

Out of the discussion of the evolution of the Monroe Doctrine and the aspiration of Latin America as set forth in the doctrine of Carlos Calvo may come the first definite step toward a coherent intercontinental policy. In the scheme for monitor republics may lie the germ of a body of American international law which shall tend to conserve permanently the sovereign independence and dignity of each member of the sisterhood of American republics. To quote a dinner toast recently offered by Secretary Root to the nations of the New World: *"Monitor republics."*

"May the independence, the freedom, and the rights of the least and weakest be ever respected equally with the rights of the strongest, and may we all do our share toward the building up of a sound and enlightened public opinion of the Americas, which shall everywhere, upon both continents, mightily promote the reign of peace, of order, and of justice in every American republic." *Secretary Root's toast.*

[In 1906, direct cable communication is established between the United States and Japan. The Italian steam-

*Cuban in-
surrection.*

ship *Sirio* is wrecked near Cape Palos, Spain (300 drowned). The Shah grants a constitution to Persia. Earthquakes occur in Chili. A Cuban insurrection begins. A telegraph cable from the Shetland Islands to Iceland is completed. Headings of Pennsylvania Railroad tunnel under Hudson River are joined. A typhoon at Hong Kong destroys thousands. The Institute of International Law at Ghent, Belgium, formulates regulations for use of wireless telegraphy in war time. Hurricanes sweep through the Gulf States. Palma resigns and Roosevelt orders American intervention in Cuba; Secretary Taft becomes provisional governor. Sixteen competitors leave Paris for Gordon Bennett Balloon Cup. The French submarine *Lutin* disappears with a crew of 14. A hurricane devastates Havana, Florida and parts of Central America. The Russian steamer *Variag* strikes a torpedo while leaving Vladivostok Harbor (200 drowned). Commander Peary's Polar Expedition penetrates farthest north (87 degrees, 6 minutes). Roosevelt visits Panama. Albert of Flanders is declared sovereign of the Congo Independent State. There is an earthquake in Sicily. The ends of the East River Tunnel, New York, are joined. The Pope commands resistance to the new French public worship law. Theodore Roosevelt is awarded the Nobel prize. The French confirm the Algeciras Treaty. A French law separating church and state goes into full effect. The Mexican government takes control of the railroads. The German Society of Wire-

*Algeciras
Treaty is
confirmed.*

less Telegraphy holds wireless communication over a distance of twenty-four miles. An earthquake nearly destroys Kingstown, Jamaica. Emperor William dissolves the Reichstag for refusing to vote supplies.

In 1907, Mohammed Ali Mirza is crowned Shah of Persia. The Russian Army evacuates Manchuria. Honduras declares war on Nicaragua. The Second Russian Duma assembles. The Central American war ends with Nicaragua victorious. The International Peace Congress opens in New York. The Jamestown Ter-Centennial opens. The Prince of the Asturias, heir to the Spanish throne, is born. The First Finnish Diet under the new Constitution meets. King Carlos of Portugal begins an absolute régime. The Second Hague Peace Conference assembles. The Korean Emperor abdicates. A Treaty surrendering Korea to Japan is signed at Seoul.]

*Russians
evacuate
Manchuria.*

*Japan gains
Korea.*

JAPAN AND KOREA

(A.D. 1907)

ANGUS HAMILTON

THE position of Korea in regard to Japan is, of course, unfortunate, both geographically and politically. Lying between the territories of China, on the one hand, and the Empire of Japan on the other, the Hermit Kingdom has never been quite free from that intimidating influence by which a paramount Power so frequently manifests its authority. Long years ago, in spite of treaties—possibly in defiance of them—Japan conceived a line of action in Korea and has fashioned it to suit her own interests. Unable to obtain the secession of the territory which she so much desired, communities of her subjects have fringed its borders. They planted themselves wherever there were prospects of trade, until all the main resources of the Empire and the entire control of its commerce were virtually in their hands. Trade followed the flag, whether the Japanese were within the radius of the treaty ports or engaged in forcing the hands of the local officials by settling be-

*The
Hermit
Kingdom.*

yond the limitations of their conventions, and the success of this activity was soon assured although the Koreans themselves have not been touched by it. It is even a point whether Korea has not profited more from her intercourse with European Powers than with Japan. Foreign Governments, without exception, have respected her territories, while individual Europeans have been instrumental in improving the condition of her agriculture, of her laws and education, of her finances and of her customs. These reforms naturally influenced commerce, but as Korea's trade was controlled by Japan it was the Japanese who benefited by the resulting prosperity. Coincident with them, too, Japan has made Korea the dumping-ground of her surplus population, and there are to-day no less than one hundred thousand Japanese settlers in the kingdom who, for the most part, are wholly contemptuous of the local Government. Thus, by a process of evolution based upon studied indifference to the wishes, interests and orders of the Korean Government, Japan has overridden Korea, until the long pent-up resentment which accumulated under the process, found its discharge in the troubles of 1904-1907.

In considering the latest development of Japanese action in the Hermit Kingdom, therefore, it is necessary to go back to the time when the conflict of interests in Korea, precipitated as much by Japanese aggression as by Russian expansion in Manchuria, first indicated the prospect of a Russo-Japanese War. At that date by the

*Korea's
trade con-
trolled by
Japan.*

terms of the Anglo-Japanese Treaty of the 30th January, 1904, an effort was made to secure the commercial, political, and territorial independence of Korea, while by the terms of the Mikado's rescript of the 10th February, issued as a Declaration of War, the necessity of maintaining the independence of Korea, now becomes a *casus belli*, was re-affirmed.

The Anglo-Japanese Treaty of 1904.

For the moment, however, Japan had not got complete control of the situation as, occupied with the war in Manchuria, she was unable to devote any portion of her energies to the development of Korea. With the Treaty of Portsmouth the situation in a measure turned, and she was left in undisputed possession of the field. This position was specifically recognized when the Russian Government in Article II of this Russo-Japanese Treaty acknowledging that Japan possessed in Korea paramount political, military, and economic interests, engaged neither to obstruct nor interfere with the measures of guidance, protection and control which the Government of Japan might find it necessary to take. Even then the situation was not altogether determined. While the Japanese Government had been endeavoring since the war began to coerce the Emperor into accepting a Japanese Protectorate, the Japanese Legation in Seoul had been backing a scheme by which a concession of all the waste lands of the Kingdom was to be granted to Mr. Nagamori, without payment and for a term of fifty years.

*Korean
aversion to
Japanese.*

Japan in the past had possessed such a monopoly of supply and demand in relation to the requirements of the Koreans that any increase in the advantages of her position destroyed rather than promoted Korean sympathies. Time, and a more diplomatic method of addressing herself to the situation, doubtless might have enabled her to conquer Korean aversion, which sprang for the most part from memories and experiences of irresponsible aggression by Japanese settlers, travelling merchants and others. At the same time the lawlessness of the Japanese, and their careless disregard for the rights of the Koreans, were undoubtedly in favor of the Japanese Government, for Germany, Great Britain, and America, equally with France and China, possessed important commercial rights in Korea. It was at this stage of affairs very unfortunate that the chancelleries of Europe had no very exact information of the character of the Japanese domination of the Korean peninsula, for if the situation had been properly understood, the territorial integrity of Korea to-day might still be intact and its markets might now be open to the commerce of the world. The chance of any improvement in the direction of European interests disappeared when, on the 27th of September, 1905, less than a month after the signing of the Treaty of Portsmouth, the details of a new Anglo-Japanese Treaty were published, of which Clause III—the most pertinent in connection with the situation in Korea—was as follows:

*A new
Anglo-
Japanese
Treaty.*

"Japan possessing paramount political, military, and economic interests in Korea, Great Britain recognizes the right of Japan to take such measures of guidance, control and protection in Korea as she may deem proper and necessary to safeguard and advance those interests, provided always that such measures are not contrary to the principle of equal opportunities for the commerce and industry of all nations."

With the publication of this treaty Japanese diplomacy had won for itself what the war had not brought—the tacit recognition by the Powers of Japan's special position in Korea. Thenceforward Japan became the sole arbiter of the destinies of Korea, to the extreme displeasure and distrust of the Koreans. Events now moved rapidly, and on the 11th of November the Marquis Ito brought to the Emperor of Korea an autographed letter from the Mikado which read as follows:

*Japan
becomes
master of
Korea.*

"I, the Emperor of Japan, hereby congratulate your Majesty on the restoration of peace in the Far East, and, in order that the friendly relations existing between our two nations should become still closer, I hereby send my special ambassador whom I beg you to receive.

*The
Mikado's
letter.*

"I also wish to assure your Majesty that I shall hereafter guard the integrity of Korea, and vouchsafe the personal safety of the Imperial Household."

Four days later, in a special audience with the Emperor of Korea, the Marquis Ito presented the three fol-

*Japan's
proposals.*

lowing proposals from the Japanese Government for signature:

"Article I.—The Korean Department of Foreign Affairs shall be abolished. In future all diplomatic dealings on the part of Korea will be despatched by a council sitting at Tokio.

"Article II.—The Japanese Minister at Seoul shall hereafter be called 'General Superintendent,' or 'Director of Affairs.'

"Article III.—The Japanese Consular representatives at Seoul and at the different ports of Korea shall hereafter be called 'Superintendents.' "

*Stormy
scenes.*

Confronted with the demands of Marquis Ito, the Emperor, with great courage, repudiated the entire transaction, and, although several hours were wasted by the Marquis Ito in stormy protest, the Japanese envoy ultimately was compelled to withdraw. With his retirement, however, the negotiations were simply transferred from the Palace to the Japanese Legation and from there to the Council Chamber of the Korean Cabinet. In spite of threats of immediate execution and undeterred by violent physical coercion, the Ministers supported their Emperor in declining to entertain the Japanese demands. On the 16th Marquis Ito, supported by infantry with drawn bayonets and loaded magazines, assembled all the members of the Cabinet and again repeated his orders that the proposal should be signed. Meantime the Council Chamber had been surrounded by a cordon of Jap-

*Korean
Cabinet
decline
Japanese
demands.*

anese infantry and artillery, a similar demonstration was taking place round the Imperial palace, where the Japanese soldiers were encouraged to invade the Royal apartments. Although panic-stricken, terrorized, and fearing that their lives were to be taken, the Ministers continued to refuse to pay attention to the overtures of the Japanese Minister, the pleadings of the Marquis Ito, or the threats of General Hasegawa. Affairs in the Council Chamber had come to such a pass that the Marquis Ito ordered a vote to be taken, but the opposition was so decided that here again he was defeated. This situation continued throughout the 16th and a good deal of the 17th, but at midnight on the 17th, after vainly threatening the Council, Marquis Ito despatched Japanese police to the Ministry of Foreign Affairs to seize the seal of the Foreign Minister. With its arrival one or two of the unimportant ministers began to weaken; and, ultimately, to cut short the recital of this disgraceful episode, after three days of intimidation, the Ministers for Home Affairs, War, Agriculture, and Education appended their seals, while the Ministers for Finance, Justice, and the Prime Minister, maintained their opposition to the bitter end which, however, was not secured until the Marquis Ito himself affixed the seals of the Foreign Minister to the documents in the early hours of the morning of the 18th of November.

*Imperial
palace
surrounded.*

*Seals
appended.*

Violent as these proceedings were, the action of the Japanese was dictated by the knowledge that the Em-

*Treaty of
1882.*

peror of Korea, foreseeing the trend of the situation, had despatched in the previous month an American friend, Mr. Homer B. Hulbert, with a letter of protest to the American Government. In the treaty of 1882 between America and Korea the first article was as follows:

"There shall be perpetual peace and friendship between the President of the United States and the King of Chosen, and the citizens and subjects of their respective Governments. If other Powers deal unjustly or oppressively with either Government, the other will exert their good offices, on being informed of the case, to bring about an amicable arrangement, thus showing their friendly feelings.

And it was to this that his Majesty now pinned his faith. Although the petition of the Emperor arrived in Washington quite safely it failed to arrest the action of the Japanese, who had already announced to the State Department the execution of a voluntary agreement by which Japan had been granted a Protectorate over Korea.

Terrible consequences were to follow this usurpation of authority by the Japanese, which in general has entailed untold misery upon the Koreans. No less than six of the leading officials of the country committed suicide, the principal being Prince Min Yong Whan, an aide-de-camp to the Emperor; while popular resentment was expressed by murderous attacks upon the Ministers whose signatures were purported to be attached to the treaty. Elsewhere, too, under the pretext of strategic re-

quirements, many thousands of farmers have been dispossessed of their lands without indemnity, whole villages have been deported without compensation, while the scum of Japan has settled upon Korea in the enjoyment of a lawless existence. Successive reports from the country described scenes of anarchy in which pillage, rape, and murder have figured prominently. In the capital, as might have been expected, the publication of the Imperial letter resulted in a more rigorous supervision of palace affairs, to the effect that native officials of independent character were dismissed, the various foreign Ministers were recalled, and most of the foreign advisers retired. Throughout 1906 the situation went from bad to worse, and his Majesty was compelled, if he wished to preserve any semblance of authority, to meet Japanese coercion by intrigue. With a faith that is almost sublime he decided to appeal yet once more to the Powers, and arranged privately in the spring of 1907 to despatch an envoy to the Hague Conference. Details of this act are so well known that they call for no further mention, although the Emperor's conduct served as a pretext for the Japanese to bring about a complete upheaval of the late régime, and, accordingly, on the 19th of July his Majesty was deposed in favor of the Crown Prince, while on the 26th of July the following treaty was proclaimed:

"The Governments of Japan and Korea, animated by a desire promptly to develop the wealth and strength of

*Scenes of
anarchy.*

*The King
of Korea
deposed.*

Korea, and increase the welfare of the Korean people, agree as follows:

(1) The Government of Korea will follow the guidance of the Resident-General in administrative reforms.

(2) Legislative enactments and important administrative measures shall be forthwith approved by the Resident-General.

(3) Judicial affairs shall be distinguished from ordinary administrative affairs.

(4) The appointment or dismissal of high Korean officials shall be subject to the consent of the Resident-General.

(5) Korea shall engage as Korean officials Japanese recommended by the Resident-General.

(6) Korea shall not engage foreigners without the consent of the Resident-General.

(7) The first clause of the agreement concluded on the 22nd August, 1904, shall be abrogated."

With the publication of this treaty one must recognize presumably the passing of Korea, although in acknowledging its disappearance it is perhaps permissible to deplore the methods by which the result has been obtained. The treaty speaks for itself, and in many ways, is a measure frankly hostile to foreign influence both in its scope and its future application. It is difficult indeed to find in the promise of its unwritten intention any expression of consideration for the welfare of Korea or for the foreign interests which so long have been asso-

*The passing of
Korea.*

ciated with the Hermit Kingdom. Indeed, in reflecting upon its terms, it is almost possible to imagine that the Japanese have forgotten the great obligation to Western capital under which they exist. Without the support of British, French, German, and American funds Japan could not have become the sponsor of Europe for the satisfactory solution of the Korean problem. Yet, in place of the principle of the open door and the doctrine of equal opportunity to which Japan indirectly pledged herself when she placed the interests of Europe in Korea upon a level with her own, each successive treaty of recent years has disclosed a further modification of the position at one time held in Korea by the trade of the Occident. The assistance of the West, so freely offered in Japan's hour of distress, thus has been instrumental in creating a position for Japan in Korea in which the Occident will not participate.

[In 1907, there is a disastrous fire at Coney Island. An accident on the new Quebec Bridge over the St. Lawrence kills seventy people. An earthquake in Calabria causes loss of 250 lives. Ramsay degrades copper into helium. There is a conflagration in Manila. Severe floods occur in Japan. The British bill permitting a man to marry his deceased wife's sister becomes a law. The Grand Vizier of Persia is assassinated. Strike riots occur in Antwerp. A pageant is held in Oxford. The Great Eastern Railway steamer, *Berlin*, is stranded at Hook of

*Quebec
Bridge
falls.*

Holland. International meteorological researches with balloons discover new facts regarding temperature of upper air currents. Secretary Taft is a guest of Japan. A compulsory education edict is issued in China. The Marconi wireless station in Nova Scotia picks up a message from Manila. *Lusitania* breaks the trans-Atlantic record from Queenstown to Sandy Hook (4 days, 20 hours). First direct cable from New York to Havana completed. Central American Peace Conference assembles in Washington. President signs state constitution of Oklahoma. Gustav V. becomes King of Sweden on death of King Oscar. 1908: First train passes through East River Tunnel, New York. Assassination of the King of Portugal and Crown Prince. Manuel proclaimed King of Portugal. Resignation and flight of Portuguese Premier. Pennsylvania railroad completes its first tube under East River Tunnel, New York, at Long Island City. Haitien revolutionary plot suppressed. Disastrous earthquake in southern Mexico. Arbitration treaty between Great Britain and United States signed in Washington. Conflagration in Chelsea, Boston, renders 10,000 homeless (15 killed, loss \$5,575,000). Floods in Hankow, China (2,000 lives and 700 junks lost). Japanese training cruiser *Matsushima* sunk by explosion (200 drown). Grand Duchy of Mecklenburg-Schwerin receives a constitution. Mulai Hafid, Pretending Sultan of Morocco, takes Fez. Persian troops and Cossacks take Teheran. Roosevelt orders troops to the Rio Grande to enforce neutrality against

*Central
American
Peace Con-
ference in
Washing-
ton.*

*King and
Crown
Prince of
Portugal
assas-
sinated.*

*The
Chelsea
Fire.*

Mexican revolutionists. Pontifical decree makes important changes in the Roman Catholic Church constitution. Venezuela severs diplomatic relations with the United States. Floods in Asia Minor (2,000 drowned). Celebration of 300th anniversary of Quebec. Revolt of "Young Turks." Sultan of Turkey grants Constitution and Parliament. Riot against Europeans in India (20,000 mill-workers strike in Bombay). Typhoon in Canton, China, drowns 300. Asiatic cholera breaks out in Volga region, Russia. Zeppelin makes a record flight in his airship from Friedrichshafen to Mayence (250 miles), the balloon explodes next day. Resignation of new Turkish Grand Vizier and Ministry. Race riots in Springfield, Ill. Sultan Abd-el-Aziz of Morocco loses throne to his brother Mulai Hafid in battle. *Lusitania* breaks her own record (4 days, 15 hours, 25 minutes). Prussian Government grants higher education to women. Orville Wright begins to break heavier-than-air aeroplane records. Cholera in St. Petersburg.]

*Revolt
of the
"Young
Turks."*

THE RISE OF THE YOUNG TURKS

(A.D. 1908)

ANGUS HAMILTON

WHEN Abdul Hamid ascended the throne of the Osmanlis as Sultan of Turkey he was without any preparation for the high office which the hapless fate of his immediate predecessors had rendered vacant. Without training, without a single friend whom he could trust, surrounded by those who had deposed his uncle Abdul Aziz and driven to insanity his own brother Murad, Abdul Hamid found the integrity of Turkey assailed upon all sides, whilst he himself appeared to be the least fitting person to forestall the calamities which were impending.

With the deposition of his uncle, the knell of the Ottoman Empire seemed to have sounded. War with Russia loomed across the frontier; the atrocities in Bulgaria had filled Europe with gasping horror; Montenegro and Servia were in conflict. When the recluse, drawn from his retreat among Mullahs and Imams, became installed in Yildiz, there was not a Power in the world

*Turkey
in 1876.*

that would assist him, nor was there an official upon whom he could rely. The treasury had been depleted by the extravagances of Abdul Aziz, and could no longer remit the interest on the coupon. No new loan was possible, yet armies were urgently needed to restrain Servia and Montenegro, while there was no portion of the Empire which was not threatened. Greece was menacing in the south, Russia in the north and east, Austria in the west, and a European Commission had been appointed to inquire into the finances of Turkey—the Commission whose labors established the Ottoman Bank and the Dette Publique. The first sitting had just begun when, on December 23d, 1876, salvos of artillery were heard and Safet Pacha, the President of the Conference, explained that they were to celebrate the promulgation of a Constitution.

*Promul-
gation of
the Consti-
tution.*

"A great act," said he, "is being accomplished at this hour. . . . It inaugurates a new era for the happiness and prosperity of the people."

The Constitution was the work of Midhat Pacha, the Grand Vizier and one of the first of the "Young Turks." Midhat had been a leader of the Palace conspiracy in which Abdul Aziz was assassinated, and he had exacted from Murad a pledge to promulgate a Constitution. He helped the present Sultan to get rid of Murad, and thus it came about that the worst political reactionary of all the Sultans began his reign with a proclamation which described "the aspiration of France and the practice of

England." Called into existence on December 23, 1876, the Turkish Parliament met in March, 1877, and passed away in February of 1878 by order of the Sultan and by virtue of Article 44 of the Constitution, which reserved to the throne the right of closing both houses at its pleasure.

The reform movement in Turkey from its earliest phase has been marked by the warring policies of one or other of the different Constitutional factions. To-day the Young Turks are united over what in 1876-78 precipitated disaster; but although the Softas helped Midhat at the outset of his task in August, 1876, they petitioned the Grand Vizier against the clauses of the Constitution which extended citizenship to the Christian elements. Objecting to the military obligations involved in the proposed emancipation of the Christians, the Greek and Armenian Patriarchs were also roused against the contemplated measure, which was to the liking of no party and due solely to the political prescience of Midhat himself. With singular sagacity he realized that the equality of all races and creeds before the law was the sole prospect of salvation remaining to Turkey, and with his fall from office an end was put temporarily to the constitutional movement.

*Sagacity of
Midhat
Pacha.*

If with the downfall of Midhat the fortunes of the Young Turks' movement languished, there was a revival of activity during the nineties. In the following years, too, quite a number of committees of progressive men

of various blood, speech, and faith came into existence—both inside and outside the Ottoman Empire. For a time Paris and Geneva were the chief centres of the organization in Europe, and when papers appeared in support of the interests of the party a direct appeal to European opinion was made by the moderate tone of their statements upon the aims and purposes of the Young Turks. By degrees, however, converts were gained in the outlying areas of the Ottoman dominions in Eastern Europe, in Asia Minor and in Egypt and new branches of the parent society grew up in which a more militant note was imparted to the propaganda of the party than was favored in Paris and Geneva. Thus rifts had already begun to appear in the platform of the Young Turks when some forty-seven representative delegates assembled at Paris in 1902, under the presidency of Prince Sahab-Eddin, to discuss reforms and the future of the party. In December, 1907, a Second Congress of Young Turks was called. Among the groups who despatched delegates were the Ottoman Committee of Union and Progress, the Armenian Revolutionary Federation, the Ottoman League of Private Initiative of Decentralization and Constitution and the Israelite Committee of Egypt. After exhaustive discussion, in which the principle of moderation was admitted to be more in accordance with the general interests of the fraternity than the existing methods of the revolutionaries, a working agreement was made between the Moderate element

*First
Congress of
Young
Turks.*

*Second
Congress of
Young
Turks.*

and the various Armenian, Jewish, and Macedonian revolutionary committees.

Although discrepancies still existed between the respective views of the active branches and the governing body, much disagreement was made to disappear, and the Ottoman Committee of Union and Progress, working avowedly for the affirmation of the Midhatian principle of racial and religious equality in Turkey, became potential head of the Young Turks. For a time, at all events, the situation was saved in the interests of the Moderate element, and the following principles were agreed upon as worthy of general acceptance by the several groups as the result of the Conference:

(1) The abdication of the Sultan Abdul Hamid; (2) Radical change of the present *régime*; (3) Establishment of a Parliament.

Such a programme obviously pointed to revolution at some future date, and, while counsels of moderation still proceeded from the Ottoman Committee of Union and Progress, elaborate preparations against possible eventualities were made in Turkey itself. For the nonce the leaders of the movement continued to reside abroad, actively engaged in pursuit of their plans and insistent upon the peaceful character of their intentions. In every village a committee was formed for the enlistment of members, while at the same time it was empowered to act upon its own initiative in the adjustment of grievances. It is to the divided control which this arrange-

The programme.

ment created that so many of the recent disorders can be attributed, for the local committees, unmindful of the intricacies of the international situation, were not always able to appreciate the fact that the principle of the movement was aggressive, while its methods were passive.

The oaths subscribed by the members partook of the picturesqueness that is usually associated with secret societies. A revolver and a knife were placed upon a Koran, which was held to the forehead of the new member as he repeated in solemn tones:

"I swear in the name of God and Mohammed that I will fight for nationality, freedom, and truth while a drop of blood remains in my body."

With this oath taken, the member then paid his tax and undertook to provide himself with a rifle and to be prepared to abandon family, work and friends at any moment that he was called upon to fight for the cause. Moneys, derived from the taxation to which the members were subject, accruing from donations or obtained in the course of operations, were to be devoted primarily to the purchase of arms, ammunition and stores, and secondly to the support of the families of those members who might be killed during the course of the revolution.

Although Christians were not allowed at first to participate in the movement, at a later date they were permitted to become affiliated with it, when they were conceded the right to carry arms and to contribute to the funds, but were compelled to subscribe a different oath.

To Mussulmans and Christians alike the committees recommended:

(1) Armed resistance to acts of the authorities; (2) Non-armed resistance by means of political and economic strikes, strikes of officials, police, etc.; (3) Refusal to pay taxes; (4) Propaganda in the army; soldiers to be asked not to march against the people or the revolutionaries; (5) General insurrection. Although conditions in Turkey caused the programme of the Young Turks to be hailed with satisfaction, the cause possessed little prospect of success so long as the mutual antipathies of the various peoples were preserved. Race prejudice so dominates the conditions of the Nearer East that it has become a factor of great importance in the administration of the country, and one, too, which the Sultan has invariably turned to his advantage. Hitherto no attempt has been made to meet racial prejudices on the common ground of some mutual understanding, and it was because racial unity was unknown that the problem of Macedonia remained unsolved. Perhaps the most remarkable of the changes which have taken place in the last few weeks in the dominions of the Sultan are those which have accompanied the Turkish rendering of the cry, "One Flag, One People." Hitherto such an outburst would have been as unintelligible as it would have proved unexpected, for the divers races regarded the Sultan with indifference and each other with contempt. Yet under the influence of the agents of the Young

Recommendations of the committees.

"One Flag, One People."

Turks a racial solidarity has been achieved which of itself has gone some way toward securing the defeat of the Sultan.

It is impossible to state at what point in their plans the Young Turks were assured of the co-operation of the various races, but it must be obvious to any one with the most perfunctory knowledge of Turkey, that once this particular question had been adjusted, the plans of the Young Turks were destined to prevail. Aside from this aspect of the situation, the conditions of life in Turkey long since had approached the sum total of misery that the human machine could endure. Tyranny in every form flourished, poverty was universal, and each grade of society was the victim of the one above it. For years the burden of an intolerant autocracy, in which freedom of speech was denied, liberty of movement was impossible and human life was never safe, has been borne without complaint.

Social conditions in Turkey.

A Reign of Terror.

In a measure these things sprang from the Sultan, in whom suspicion was innate and whose spies were everywhere. In the public office, in the harem, in the street, in the dining-room, in the baths, wherever one went, whatever one did, the secret emissaries of the Sultan were there to report. To espionage Abdul Hamid has given his choicest thoughts, and the system of surveillance which he organized with the power of his private means was a wonderful yet terrible piece of machinery. Through it no father could trust his sons, nor a master

his servants, for Abdul Hamid had proved that no one was beyond suspicion nor above temptation. As a consequence, the lives of the highest and of the lowest of his subjects were affected in a most remarkable manner. A feeling of constraint permeated everywhere, influencing the simplest actions and the most unconsidered speech, until life became, from the capital itself to the most distant confines of the empire, a constant horror, unenjoyable even by the spies themselves, as the Sultan was too astute to place any credence in the evidence of the spy that had not himself been spied upon.

To a system of delation that was marvellous in the perfection to which it attained, the Sultan added a policy that was based upon corruption and regulated by favoritism. The worst methods of Eastern despotism have prevailed for years past at Yildiz, where for many reasons it would have been better to have regarded the court as aboriginal and Asiatic. From his earliest youth Abdul Hamid has always gone in fear of assassination, and partially on this ground he has chosen to administer the government of his empire single-handed. The pressure which such a system of centralization naturally produces prepared the way for abuses which arose from the impossibility of the task.

*Abdul
Hamid's
fear of
assassina-
tion.*

[In 1908, the International Congress on Tuberculosis is held at Washington. Austria-Hungary annexes Bosnia and Herzegovina. Prince Ferdinand of Bulgaria pro-

Austria-Hungary annexes Bosnia and Herzegovina.

Messina earthquake.

Conference of Maritime Powers.

Taft becomes President of the United States.

claims the independence of Bulgaria and assumes title of Czar. Crete proclaims its union with Greece. Typhoon in Chang-Chow destroys 1,000 lives. William H. Taft is elected President of the United States. Radbod mine explosion near Hamm, Germany, kills 400. General Jose Miguel Gomez is elected President of Cuba. Prince Chun is made Regent of China. Pu Yi is proclaimed Emperor of China on death of Emperor Kwang Hsu. Dowager Empress Tsu Hsi dies. The eighth satellite of Jupiter is discovered. Earthquake and tidal wave in Italy destroy 150,000 lives and wipe out Messina and Reggio.

In 1909, Turkey cedes Herzegovina to Austria-Hungary. The First Cuban Congress meets. France and Germany sign Moroccan Treaty. Mt. Kantjana, Japan, falls, burying three villages. There is a Conference of Maritime Powers in London at which the much-discussed Declaration of London, February 26, 1909, with its modification of the law of contraband and rights of seizure and search is adopted by the delegates for transmission to their respective governments. The Atlantic battleship fleet is welcomed home in Hampton Roads on completion of the voyage around the world. William H. Taft is inaugurated President of the United States. A thousand are killed in a fire in Canton, China. Siam cedes three states to the British Empire. The United States Government breaks off diplomatic relations with Nicaragua. Shackleton's Antarctic expedition returns to New Zealand. The Crown Prince of Serbia renounces his right of

succession to the throne. Serbia accepts a settlement with Austria-Hungary. Queensborough Bridge over the East River, New York, is opened. There is a military mutiny in Constantinople. Fifteen thousand Armenians are massacred in Asiatic Turkey. The Constitutional Army takes Constantinople. Sultan Abdul Hamid of Turkey is deposed, and Prince Mohammed Reschis Effendi becomes Sultan Mohammed V. A Crown Princess is born in Holland. Russians relieve Tabriz. The Shah restores Constitution to Persia. The Philippine Legislature demands independence of the islands. Zeppelin flies the dirigible balloon *Zeppelin II* from Friedrichshafen to Bitterfeld, 456 miles. Yukon Pacific Exposition is opened in Seattle. Korinchi, Sumatra, is destroyed by earthquake and 250 are killed. There is a bloody revolt in northern Albania. Earthquake in southern France causes loss of one hundred lives. Persian Constitutionalists take Teheran. Muhammed Ali, Shah of Persia, is dethroned and is succeeded by Crown Prince Ahmed Mirza. A general strike in Barcelona is a protest against the Spanish-Moroccan War. The Powers evacuate Crete. Anti-Diaz riots occur at Guadalajara, Mexico. Orville Wright establishes a new airplane record for duration of flight—20 minutes, 45 seconds. Bleriot in a monoplane flies across the English Channel—28 miles. Bubonic plague and cholera are found at Amoy, China. Walter Wellman starts in his dirigible balloon from Spitzbergen for the North Pole, but fails. Chili celebrates the centenary of her inde-

*Anti-Diaz
riots in
Mexico.*

pendence. The first aviation tournament is held at Rheims, France. King Alfonso proclaims martial law in Spain. One thousand persons are drowned in the great flood in Chang-Chun, Manchuria. Robert E. Peary announces discovery of the North Pole by wireless from Labrador. The Hudson-Fulton celebration is held in New York. Peary arrives in New York and participates in the great naval parade.]

*Hudson-
Fulton
celebration.*

PEARY'S DISCOVERY OF THE NORTH POLE

(A.D. 1909)

J. HAMPTON MOORE

THE American people gloried in Peary's return; they awaited his coming and the recital of his story; neither they nor the great newspaper craft had patience to await the unwinding of the red tape associated with a governmental report; they wanted news, and they wanted Peary's news. Unhappily for Peary he kept his faith, and those in the newspaper world with whom he kept his faith exercised the right of legal protection, leaving open to the great mass of newspapers of the country such information, such stories, as might come, and readily did come, from another source. A world's event was being recorded, and the difficulties of a majority of the newspapers in obtaining Peary's news gave color and support to another fertile but irresponsible medium which spouted arctic yarns with wondrous volubility.

*Peary's
arrival
eagerly
awaited.*

*Peary's
voyages.*

First of all, I present a summary of Peary's northern voyages, every one of which, it will be recalled, was watched with interest and with pride by the American people. These voyages began when Peary was a young man in the navy, and were pursued with a persistency and determination in every way creditable to the American spirit.

1886. May to November; about seven months; penetrated 100 miles on the inland ice of Greenland east of Disco Bay, about 70° N. latitude; altitude, 7,500 feet.

1891-1892. June, 1891, to September, 1892; about sixteen months; right leg broken on voyage north. Five-hundred-mile march out and same distance back, across northern part of Greenland, discovering Independence Bay on the north-eastern coast.

1893-1895. July, 1893, to September, 1895; about twenty-seven months; entire party except Peary and two men returned at end of first year. Spring of 1895 Peary repeated the march across northern end of Greenland and gained some miles beyond his farthest of 1892. Discovered the great Cape York meteorites and brought the two smaller ones back with him.

1896. July-October; about three months; unsuccessful attempt to bring home largest of the Cape York meteorites.

*The largest
meteorite
in the
world.*

1897. July-October; about three months. Brought home largest of the Cape York meteorites—the Ahnigito, the largest in the world—weighing about 90 tons.

1898-1902. July, 1898—October, 1902; about four years, three and a half months. During this time made four separate attempts to get north, resulting in the rounding of the northern end of Greenland and the attainment of the latitude of 84.17° north of the northern point of Grant Land. All the instruments, records, private papers of the Lady Franklin expedition at Fort Conger brought home.

1905-1906. July, 1905—November, 1906; about seventeen months; highest north, $87^{\circ} 6'$, attained in this journey.

1908-1909. July, 1908—September, 1909; about fifteen months. Attainment of the Pole.

SUMMARY

Eight voyages, six attempts to reach the Pole and some twelve years spent inside the Arctic Circle. *The summary.*

	DEGREES NORTH
	LATITUDE
1886	69.00
1892	81.35
1895	81.40
1899	81.50
1900	83.59
1902	84.17
1906	87.60
1909	90.00

Peary's
ability.

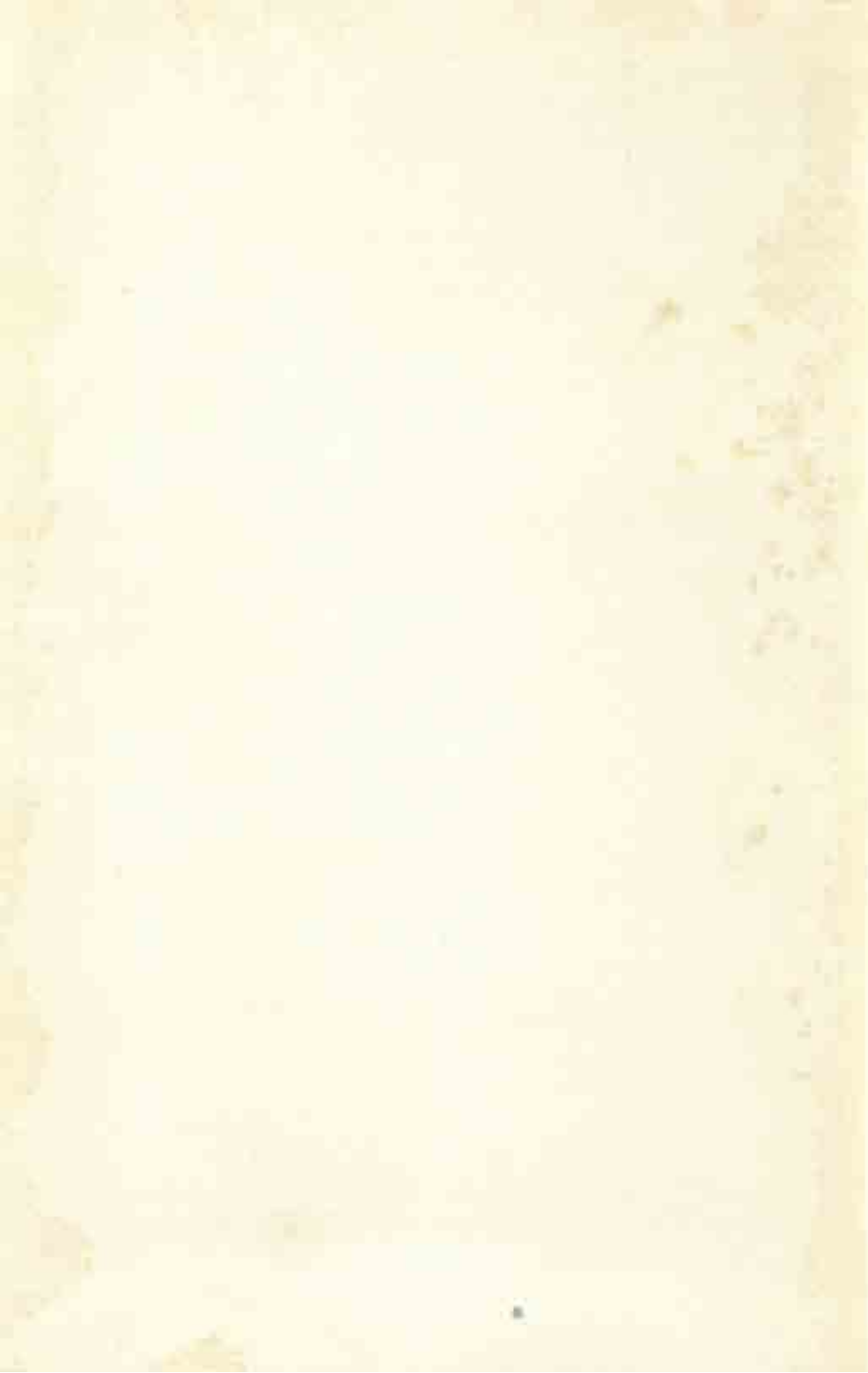
Peary's ability as a commander is thoroughly demonstrated by the success of his various expeditions. Twice his ship was driven through the ice to the highest point ever reached in the Western Hemisphere and to a point higher than any ship has ever attained under her own steam. Many other ships attempted the same voyage, four of them accomplished part of it and two were lost. As to his work being civil and distinct from naval, it may be observed that Peary's bringing of the *Roosevelt* home in the fall of 1906, fighting her way through the heavy arctic ice, from Cape Union to Littleton Island, and thence down along the savage Baffin Land and Labrador coasts, encountering storm after storm, with rudder and sternposts torn away, propellers crippled and pumps going constantly, has been characterized as one of the ablest, most resourceful, and courageous affairs of its kind in the annals of arctic exploration. Indeed, it was the wonder of everyone who saw the ship when it was taken out on the dry dock.

Peary's
resource-
fulness.

But as to the expedition that was successful, the expedition of 1908-1909, resulting in the discovery of the Pole: In the light of the records, divested of all the bitterness and contention and misrepresentation that have been aroused with regard to Peary, it would seem that officially there could be no possible foundation for a refusal to acknowledge the work of this American discoverer. He fitted out this last great expedition at his own expense and that of his friends, and was then granted



ROBERT E. PEARY—DISCOVERER OF THE NORTH POLE (*Pages 245-254*)
FROM A PHOTOGRAPH



leave of absence by the Navy Department, taking with him instructions which gave him an unqualified official connection with the Government, and which would seem to leave no excuse for further denying him recognition.

S. S. Roosevelt, 8—17, 1908.

Etah, North Greenland, Lat. $78^{\circ} 18' N.$

SIR: I beg to report my arrival here August 11. Leaving Sydney July 17, Cape York Bay was reached near midnight of July 31.

The voyage north across the Gulf of St. Lawrence was favorable, the Straits of Belle Isle were free of fog, rendering the passage easy, and favoring weather was experienced along the Labrador coast, which was followed as far as Turnavik Island, latitude $55^{\circ} 18' N.$, with two intermediate stops for whale meat. *Peary's report.*

From Turnavik a course was set for Greenland coast, and about twelve hours of heavy weather ensued. After that the weather was moderate again until midnight of Saturday, the 25th. Following this were three days of strong northerly wind and sea, accompanied by rain and fog, which rendered the negotiation of Davis Strait somewhat disagreeable and arduous. From Holsteinberg the weather was favorable again, an energetic southerly wind of some hours' duration off Turnavik materially assisting us on our way.

Duck Islands were passed just before midnight of

July 30, and Melville Bay entered in brilliant sunlit weather, with light air from the north.

This weather held to the east side of Cape York Bay, which was reached 11.30 P.M., July 31, no ice having been seen on the passage across the bay. In fact, no ice has been seen in the entire voyage except a narrow string of light scattered ice off the Labrador coast, the evening of the 23d.

Heavy weather and an unusual swell held us here till early Sunday morning, when the ship crossed to Cape York, latitude $75^{\circ} 55' N$. Here I learned that the *Erik* had passed the day before, but was unable to get into the settlement. Eskimos and dogs were taken on here and the ship's tanks filled with water from the glacier. We then steamed north to North Star Bay, where I found the *Erik*.

Arrival of
the Erik.

Taking on more Eskimos and dogs here, the ships steamed in company to the northwest end of Northumberland Island, where I boarded the *Erik* to visit the settlements at the head of Inglefield Gulf, while the *Roosevelt* proceeded direct to Etah to overhaul and trim ship for the ice.

I rejoined the *Roosevelt* with the *Erik* late August 11, with additional Eskimos and dogs and some 35 walrus. All dogs were landed on an island in Etah Fiord, the *Roosevelt* was coaled from the *Erik*, coal landed for the return trip, and two men landed with supplies for the relief of Doctor Cook.

The season has been an unusually cold and stormy one, with almost continuous wind and frequent snow.

I have on board a good supply of Eskimos, dogs, and walrus meat. All on board are well. I expect to steam north some time tonight.

Very respectfully,

R. E. PEARY, U. S. Navy.

Superintendent U. S. Coast and
Geodetic Survey.

After the first flush of excitement, after the rumbling which precedes the coming of the herd, the expansion of the wave that tells of the ship's approach, or, to be blunt and understandable, after the modern demand for news had "beaten" official sanction, Peary proceeded, when facilities (the wireless telegraph) were at hand, to promptly notify the Government. His telegrams to the President, to the Secretary of the Navy, to the Secretary of State, and their replies thereto, clearly indicate the cordial and congratulatory spirit that prevailed. There was no suggestion in the proud messages that flashed back across the seas to the frozen north that there had been any violation of instructions, any breach of official faith, or any regret that an awaiting world had been informed of the glorious triumph of American pluck. In the interest of truth and justice it is fair to recall these messages.

*Peary
notifies the
Govern-
ment.*

Indian Harbor, Sept. 7, 1909.

WILLIAM H. TAFT,

President of the United States of America,
White House, Washington, D. C.

Have honor place North Pole your disposal.

R. E. PEARY,
United States Navy.

EXECUTIVE OFFICE,
Beverly, Mass., Sept 8, 1909.

Commander R. E. PEARY,

U. S. Navy, North Sydney, Nova Scotia.

Thanks for your interesting and generous offer. I do not know exactly what I could do with it. I congratulate you sincerely on having achieved after the greatest effort the object of your trip, and I sincerely hope that your observations will contribute substantially to scientific knowledge. You have added lustre to the name "American."

WILLIAM H. TAFT.

Battle Harbor, Sept 10, 1909.

HONORABLE SECRETARY OF STATE,

State Department, Washington, D. C.

Respectfully report hoisted Stars and Stripes on North Pole, April 6, and formally took possession that entire region and adjacent for and in name of President and the United States America. Record and United States flag left in possession.

PEARY.

*Stars and
Stripes at
the Pole.*

Just before the news came from Peary, Dr. Frederick A. Cook, returning from Greenland on a Danish ship, claimed that he had reached the North Pole on April 21, 1908. His claims forestalling Peary were at first recognized and he was accorded an ovation in Copenhagen. Scientific opinion in England and America was more reserved; and after a lengthy and heated dispute a special committee of the University of Copenhagen, to which Cook's documents were submitted, declared that they contained no proofs that Doctor Cook had ever reached the Pole. By this time popular opinion had also reached the same conclusion and Peary came into his own.

*The Cook
hoax.*

Thus ended the famous search for the North Pole which has been pursued for four centuries—ever since John Davis rounded Cape Farewell in 1588 and gained for Great Britain the record of "farthest north." Peary became interested in the quest as early as 1886, during a brief trip to Greenland. His first expedition to Greenland occurred in 1891 and his first North Polar Expedition in 1898-1902. His 396 miles from Greeley's "farthest north" were: 30 miles in 1900; 23 miles in 1902; 169 miles in 1906; and 174 miles in 1909. In his "North Pole" (New York, 1910), Peary gives us an insight into the enthusiasm that made such a feat possible:

*"Farthest
north."*

"The lure of the North! It is a strange and powerful thing. More than once I have come back from the great frozen spaces, battered and worn and baffled, sometimes

maimed, telling myself that I had made my last journey thither, eager for the society of my kind, the comforts of civilization and the peace and serenity of home. But somehow it was never many months before the old restless feeling came over me. Civilization began to lose its zest for me. I began to long for the great white desolation, the battles with the ice and the gales, the long, long arctic night, the long, long arctic day, the handful of odd but faithful Eskimos, who had been my friends for years, the silence and the vastness of the great, white lonely North. And back I went accordingly, time after time, until, at last, my dream of years came true."

[In 1909, the centenary celebration in St. Louis opens. Mix wins the balloon race from Zurich, Switzerland, for the James Gordon Bennett cup. In a race of ten balloons from St. Louis, No. 3 lands in Minnesota (580 miles). Wilbur Wright makes a new aeroplane speed record (46 miles an hour). Revolution exists in Nicaragua. Newly instituted provisional assemblies of China open. American Radium Institute tentatively is organized in New York. World's aeroplane speed record is broken by Leon de la Grance in a Bleriot at Doncaster, England, 860 yards, 54 miles an hour. Wilbur Wright flies 30 miles up the Hudson and back to Governor's Island. Tunnel of Trans-Andean Railway from Chili to Bolivia is pierced (highest in the world). King Leopold of Belgium dies. Copenhagen University repudiates Cook's al-

*Progress in
aviation.*

*A tunnel
through
the Andes.*

leged discovery of the North Pole. Albert I. is crowned King of Belgium. Henry Farman wins Michelin French aviation cup. Manhattan Bridge over the Hudson River is opened. In 1910, the Legislative Council for India assembles for the first time. Chinese troops enter Lhasa and chase the Dalai Lama across the Indian frontier. The British House of Commons agrees to the Government's resolution limiting the veto power of the House of Lords. Mark Twain dies. The Brussels Exposition opened. The Senate passes the bill for raising the old battleship *Maine* in Havana harbor. King Edward VII. dies. George V. accedes to the throne. Experiments on the French liner, *La Provence*, show success of wireless device for locating ships in a fog. Halley's comet approaches nearest the earth on May 18.]

*The
Brussels
Exposition
opens.*

*Halley's
comet.*

KING EDWARD VII.

(A.D. 1910)

ARTHUR C. BENSON

THERE was something deeply and even tragically impressive in the solemn simplicity of the words in which the momentous news of the demise of the Crown was announced to a group of anxious spectators at the midnight hour—"Gentlemen, the King is dead." The awful mysteries of life and death, the tremendous significance of the event itself, the human perplexity and grief in the presence of the great change, are all comprised in those brief words. When a personality so vigorous, so kindly, so notable, quits the mortal scene, leaving so grievous a gap in a circle of devoted intimates, the bare fact is saddening enough; but this sorrow and this perplexity are increased a thousandfold, when the Figure that steps so swiftly and so tranquilly into the unknown is the head of a great nation and a mighty empire, one who was endeared to his subjects by his unfailing kindliness and justice, who had won their admiration no less than their regard by the

"Gentlemen, the King is dead!"

patience, the sagacity, and the wisdom with which he had played his august part.

It is as easy to describe as it is impossible to estimate the secret of King Edward's personal influence. It came from a frank and manifest love of life, not enjoyed in selfish isolation, but with an open-handed generosity, and a desire to share with others and to communicate to them his own enjoyment, his delight in existence, with all its interests, pleasures, and duties. May I be pardoned for relating a simple personal reminiscence? I came away from an interview with the King at Buckingham Palace, in which he had spoken to me very warmly and graciously of the Letters of Queen Victoria. When I came out, an Equerry, with whom I was acquainted, was waiting for me. "Well," he said, "how did you fare?" I said the only words which came into my mind: "The King was very kind." "He always is," said the Equerry, with a smile.

*The King's
charac-
teristics.*

That was the simple secret—an invariable and genuine kindness, which streamed from the King like light from the sun. But besides that, there was an added grace in the extraordinary personal charm of the King's look and voice and manner. He set one at one's ease, instantly and immediately, with a perfect simplicity of address. He seemed not to have learned or inquired, but to know and remember everything about one. He made, on that occasion, a reference to my father with a tenderness of reminiscence that could not be simulated or misunder-

stood. And then, too, he had a sort of unquestioned and unaffected dignity, which made all who served him incapable of negligence or imperfection. He was himself so strict and punctual in the performance of duty, so decisive in carrying out every detail to which he had pledged himself, that the example he had set was more potent even than any command. He said exactly what he thought, whether it was praise or blame, approval or disapproval; but it was all tempered by a just consideration for all who served him and an anxious regard for their contentment. He was the most loyal and sincere of friends, and never overlooked faithful service. And then he had an instinctive perception of the national character, the wholesome sentiment that underlies it, and the rooted dislike of all affectation. Thus he was without any question the most popular man in his dominions, and he deserved that popularity, because he had won it, not by scheming, but by work. He knew his business, and he meant to do it in a sturdy British fashion; he was absolutely independent, and lived his life on his own lines; but the truest part of that life was his entire devotion to his country and his empire. He was determined that Monarchy should be a thing and not a name; and yet he was equally determined that he would never outstep the traditions of his great position, but that he would respect the liberties and rights of his subjects, just as he required of them that they should respect his own.

*His
popularity.*

Neither must one omit another great kingly quality for which King Edward was royally conspicuous—his unflinching courage. He can hardly have been oblivious of the fact that his life was latterly a precarious one; he had frequent warnings, and he neither disregarded them nor unduly feared them. He just went forward, bravely and even gaily, and did not lay down his pen or leave his post until he stepped to his bed of death. He desired to live, with all the eagerness of a splendid vitality, but he had no craven fears: he looked neither backwards nor forwards, but made every moment of life his own. There were some who supposed that he had lived for so long, before his accession, a life of comparative independence that he would be unable or unwilling to take up the great responsibilities of the Crown. His share of royal duties had hitherto been confined to ceremonial appearances, and to representing the Sovereign on public occasions. The cares of State and the anxieties of Government were unfamiliar to him. But he reigned with no less zest and vivacity than he had lived his uncrowned life, with unabated vigor and undiminished enjoyment; and thus our sorrow need not make us oblivious of the fact that a death in harness was the death that he would most have desired, and that it is but a part of the felicity of a life so full of movement, so rich in honor and renown.

With the growth of democracy and popular liberty, monarchy is an institution that has undergone in the last

century a subtle and remarkable change. It has ceded its political initiative, resigned its political veto; it is apparently restricted by constitutional and traditional limitations; and yet within the last seventy years, instead of losing preponderance and prestige, the Crown has insensibly and gradually acquired a position of immense responsibility and far-reaching influence, owing to the wisdom and insight, the tact and conscientiousness, the kindness and devotion, and, above all, the supreme common sense of the last two occupants of the Throne. It is easy to be impressed by the pomp and circumstance of state and natural to conclude that a distinguished courtesy and dignified acquiescence is all that is required of a constitutional monarch. But a very little reflection will show that the position is one of extreme delicacy and constant anxiety. A constitutional monarch must not only be possessed of endless industry and patience, a wide and accurate knowledge of causes and personalities; he must be at once firm and courteous; he must be both dignified and accessible. He must not only not manifest any personal political preferences, but he must banish every such consideration from his mind. He must be impartially just and sincerely sympathetic. He must be the friend of labor, order, and peace. He must have at heart the best interests and the true welfare of all classes and conditions of his subjects; and here in Great Britain he must interpret the pulse of that great Imperial spirit

*The
Crown's
immense
influence.*

which beats so securely and so largely through a vast and complex Empire and animates such varied nationalities.

Queen Victoria, by her womanly large-heartedness, her shrewdness, and experience, her quick and instinctive insight, gave to the Crown a unique prestige. When she died, it seemed impossible that this could be increased, and especially by a king who, out of filial reverence and wise judgment had been precluded from taking any active part in the government of the land. And yet by a sincere devotion to the cause of peace, by a genuine love for stately publicity, by an inimitable graciousness of demeanor, founded upon a perfectly natural human kindliness, King Edward contrived to smooth away political irritations and foreign complications alike, and to substitute for a certain stiff insularity in our European relations a cordial and unsuspecting understanding, the value of which it is impossible to over-estimate. He made it clear by his frankness and friendliness that though he was the guardian and protector of our national interests, yet that England was no less conscious of the rights of other nations than of her own rights, and that she was as anxious to secure the just independence of other Powers as she was to preserve her own. All the qualities which underlie the British ideal of sport existed in the King's temperament. He was ambitious without jealousy, modest under success, and good-humored under defeat. He was tranquil in anxiety, courageous in danger and simple in prosperity. And in Eng-

*Queen
Victoria
adds
prestige
to the
Crown.*

*The King's
fairness.*

lish public life he set an example to all politicians and statesmen of genial courtesy, and unruffled *bonhomie*, which did not stand for an absence of conviction, but for a resolute subordination of all predilections to harmony and concord.

[In 1910, General Botha, Premier of the Transvaal, is summoned to form the first Cabinet of United South Africa. The Centenary of Argentine Republic is celebrated. Captain Scott's British South Polar Expedition sails from London. The Senate passes the Arizona and New Mexico statehood bill. Zeppelin begins dirigible balloon passenger service from Friedrichsruhe to Düsseldorf. Diaz is reelected President of Mexico. There is an Asiatic cholera epidemic in Russia. Castro's family is exiled from Venezuela. The first Chinese Senate is opened by the Regent. Manuel of Portugal is dethroned and a Republic is proclaimed.]

*United
South
Africa.*


*Zeppelin
passenger
service.*

*Revolution
in
Portugal.*

THE PORTUGUESE REVOLUTION

(A.D. 1910)

E. J. DILLON

“F ALL modern revolutions none were so humane as those of Brazil and Portugal.” This *A humane revolution.* remark was made to me a few days ago by Senhor Theophilo Braga, Poet, Positivist, and President of the newest European republic. “How do you explain that?” I asked. “Partly,” he replied, “by the temper of the two nations that shook off the monarchist yoke; they are both Portuguese, but largely because they were permeated with republican and, in our country, with positivist, ideas which first produced a revolution in the souls of the young generation and of the leaders of thought, then suddenly translated themselves into acts and are now about to crystallize into institutions.” The President then went on to unfold to me the characteristic traits of the national character, in which, he maintains, the Celtic element predominates, and to show how they manifested themselves in the revolution. Without

calling this theory in question, I may say that the proximate causes of the upheaval, which I was enabled to study at close quarters, make it clear to the dullest apprehension why the old fabric of monarchical government could be pulled down almost without an effort.

*A bloody
overture.*

The murder of King Carlos and his heir in February, 1908, seemed to me the overture of a revolutionary movement which would go on steadily gaining strength until it culminated in a catastrophe. My grounds for this opinion were many and cogent. I had been informed that the motive of the murder was not so much to put an end to the political dictatorship of Joao Franco as to hinder the purification of the administration which Franco was about to carry out without ruth. And as the only parties who indulged in jobbery, and despoiled the people for the behoof of their own political partisans, were the two groups of monarchists who alternately enjoyed the sweets of office, it could be taken for granted that they were implicated in the violent death of their Sovereign. Events bore out this deduction. For neither party when in power would open an impartial inquiry into the assassination of the king or seek to bring the regicides to justice. It was fair to conclude, therefore, that so long as the monarchists continued in power, there would be no surcease of misery for the Portuguese people, whose only hope was in a republic.

Was it worth while making a resolute stand at a heavy cost of human life against the men who were

fighting to abolish this rotten royalist fabric? It was, I believe, the semiconscious feeling of the utter unfruitfulness of the combat, and even the victory that paralyzed the arm of the Government. Meanwhile events were moving rapidly, and the signs of the times growing plainer.

On Sunday, October 2, for example, Marshal Fonseca, the President-elect of the Republic of Brazil was in Lisbon, the guest of the king and the nation, and he was acclaimed enthusiastically by the people. Returning from a visit to Cintra, on arriving near the palace set apart for his use at Belem¹ he found the place blocked by a dense throng of people eager to see and welcome him. His carriage could not advance. Then my friend, Joao de Menezes, who had been presented to the President as one of the Republican deputies for Lisbon, said: "With your permission, I will say a word to the people, and they will at once open a wide avenue for your carriage to pass." But Marshal Fonseca, stepping down, took de Menezes' arm and said: "No, I had rather walk." And de Menezes escorted the nation's guest to his apartments. Returning a moment later, Dr. Menezes said to the crowd: "You now see how easy it is to instal a President of the Republic in a royal palace," whereupon vociferous cheering rent the air. That night Dr. Brito Camacho, in a speech he made to a republican assembly, recounted this incident and said: "One palace is

*Lisbon
welcomes
Fonseca.*

¹ It is known as the Paco de Belem.

already taken by the Republic. The others will be occupied with equal facility."

Evidently the time was come for trying the issue. The Monday night fixed upon for the meeting and the insurrection was a night of late-summer warmth and loveliness. Not a breath was stirring. The very stars in their courses were fighting for the republicans. The face of the broad Tagus was like the surface of a mirror. Lights were twinkling from windows of the houses on the hills. The traffic, which in Lisbon never wholly ceases throughout the night, was brisker than usual. Men hurried hither and thither, whispering as they went. The king, whose residence at this season is Cintra, a delightful place of woods and hills, some seventeen miles from the capital, had come into town to entertain his Brazilian guest, and was now reposing in the ill-omened palace of Necessidades. That royal domicile had a mysterious way of bringing death or misfortune upon those who resided in it, and the authorities of Lisbon once besought King Louis I., for whose life they professed great anxiety, to quit it, which he at once did, escorted by thousands of people carrying torches. Prince John, who could not leave, died the next day. While King Manuel was reposing there, the Minister of War, who might be expected to know something of what was going on, lay fast asleep. The Minister of Justice was having his fling at a fashionable restaurant at Cascaes, a charming watering-place, about forty min-

The ill-omened palace of Necessidades.

utes from the capital. The Prime Minister had his eyes and ears open, but his arm was palsied. He dealt no blow to the insurgents. He presumably anticipated troubles of some kind—indeed he had been expecting them daily since the murder of Dr. Bombarda. He was watching and waiting, anxious but quiescent.

A number of established facts prove decisively that Bombarda's death did not hasten the revolution. Bombarda was killed at 11.30 A. M. on Monday, October 3. When mortally wounded he sent for de Menezes and Brito Camacho and said: "I expected to be potted one of these days, just as you still do. But, great heavens! not in this silly fashion." That expectation of his and of theirs was due to the fact that the date for the outbreak had already been fixed, and fixed—unwittingly, of course—by the Government. For it had been agreed upon, ever since September 14, by the republicans that if the authorities should issue orders to the warships to quit the Tagus, the date given by them for that departure should be the date of the rising. The time was therefore settled automatically. And before Bombarda was wounded, even before the day had dawned on which he was killed, orders had been promulgated that the ships were to leave the Tagus on October 4. That settled the question.²

*The plot is
brewing.*

² Since the above was written the Premier has allowed himself to be interviewed, and has given his own account of his action and inaction. And the impression made by this narrative in Lisbon is that it emanates either from a secret accomplice of the republicans or from an individual

Yet now was the time for the monarchists to act. If they but knew what a little exertion would have sufficed to checkmate their adversaries, and if they had had faith even as a grain of mustard seed in their own cause, they would have made the birth of the republic an abortion. Thus, three times they had it in their power to stamp out revolution, were it not that in this case revolution had a soul—as President Braga put it—which powder and ball cannot destroy: on the eve of the murder of King Carlos and his eldest son, if in lieu of arresting the leaders of the conspiracy which had been revealed to him, the dictator, Franco, had followed the advice given by his War Minister, made adequate preparations, allowed the mutineers to come into the streets and had blown them into space, the fabric of the monarchy which Franco was endeavoring to purify might have lingered on. And now throughout this fateful night and the next day the king and his Cabinet, if they had been willing to risk anything for their cause or their places, might have silenced republicanism with no greater effusion of blood than they paid for discomfiture. But there were no monarchists and no monarch. How easily, had there been both, they would have scored over their adversaries, will appear from the following incident:

A short time before the fateful hour of half-past one,

of weak mind. And Senhor Teixeira de Sousa is known as a clever man. He admits that he knew the date of the outbreak, and that he also informed the king. Yet he did not send for a single monarchist regiment from the provinces until the railway line was cut!

The weakness of the Premier.

No monarchists and no monarch.

the Minister of the Marine signalled to the ships in the Tagus asking the crews whether they were quite ready to enter into action against an armed rising should it become necessary, and adding that, if not, they were to prepare without a moment's delay. This message came like the bursting of a bomb. It seemed to indicate that the Government were aware of the plot and were adopting vigorous precautions to thwart it. Perhaps the leaders were already arrested? Possibly the soldiers of the Royal or Municipal Guard, who were devoted to the monarchy, body and soul, were posted on the heights? Nobody could tell. But the signals agreed upon were delayed, nor were they ultimately given aright. Dismay was in the souls of many of the conspirators.

An unexpected message.

Admiral Candido dos Reis, however, was serene and hopeful. It was his rôle to embark in a boat with some comrades, board the warship *San Raphael*, and then return to the city with a contingent of insurgents, who should take up their position in one of the streets while the naval artillery opened fire from the warship. But at the fateful moment his comrades drew back. They were apprehensive of harming the cause instead of furthering it. They thought they had good reasons for surmising that their plot had been discovered, and therefore baffled, and they were unwilling to sacrifice the lives of brave men to no purpose. He entreated them to be daring, but they were resolved to be prudent. Their obstinacy could not be shaken. Reis, thereupon, con-

*Death of
Reis.*

cluded that all was lost. If the very first step could not be taken, how could they march to victory? He felt that he ought to have allowed and provided for this contingency, and not having done so he had plunged the nation into an abyss of misery. He at least would not survive it. A few minutes later he lay lifeless on the floor. This in truth was the catastrophe of catastrophes. Men wept bitterly on learning it. For Reis was in truth indispensable to the insurrection. He knew every detail of the plan; he was acquainted with every man deputed to play a part in carrying it out. He possessed the valuable secret of drawing crowds towards and after him. His name was a charm, his presence was a pledge of success, and his death was an irreparable loss. Many conspirators hung their heads on learning that their leader was no more; the less intelligent among them inferred that he committed suicide only because he foresaw the failure of the plot. He would surely have lived so long as there was hope. One of the enterprising republican newsmongers placarded the walls with the news of Reis's death, heedless of the crushing effect it would produce on their prospects. And even the lion-hearted broke down and cried, "All is lost!"

One man kept his head and initiative during this inner crisis. He summoned a few friends hurriedly, exposed to them the danger of yielding to vague apprehensions. "Do not let us be reasoned into defeat, seeing that we have not been beaten or even attacked. In my friend Reis

we lost a hero whose best quality was that he made his services dispensable before he left us. No loss is irreparable when the cause is a nation's. The other side may have much worse luck. Suppose the King should flee, who will fight for a fugitive? And we may have wind-falls. Suppose one of the regiments supposed to be royalist should join us? True, the average man will not reason thus; he will be crushed by the tidings that Reis is no more. It was a blunder to spread the news. We must deny it emphatically, immediately, everywhere." This man's advice was taken, placards and notices were posted and circulated throughout the city asserting that the news of Reis's death was groundless. The Admiral was living and doing splendid work, and hoped the people would second his endeavors. That man and his tactics saved the situation, and one day the republic will erect a statue to his memory.

*Reis's
death is
denied.*

About three-quarters of an hour after Reis's death the guns of the *San Raphael* boomed out, and the rising had begun. One half of the 16th Infantry Regiment mutinied. The colonel resisted energetically, and was killed on the spot. The mutineers then repaired to the 1st Artillery Regiment, who turned out and joined them, and both forces marched to the principal thoroughfare of Lisbon, Avenida, and took up a strong position on the summit. The Royalist (Municipal) Guard and the 5th Foot Chasseurs repaired to another street, the Rocio, where they were exposed to the republican fire. Called

The rising.

upon to surrender by the mutineers, they refused, and heavy firing went on until six o'clock in the morning, when it became desultory until noon. The prophecy of the optimist leader was fulfilled; a regiment on whose support the rebels had not counted joined them. One of the most important factors of that night was the meeting of the marines of the principal barracks of Alcantara.² Their second commander refusing to go with them, he was taken prisoner and paroled. On the Tagus, three warships—viz., *San Raphael*, *San Gabriel* and *Adamastor*—had hoisted the republican flag and were endeavoring to win over the fourth, *Don Carlos*, which held out obstinately for a time.

The king is awakened.

The king's slumbers were broken by the heavy firing. He arose, looked out of the windows and inquired: "Is it the revolution that has begun?" thus prejudging the issue and giving his own case away by the very form of his question. The answer being affirmative, he rose and dressed. Already grenades were bursting over the palace. He left that ill-omened domicile at about 4 A. M., and sought to put himself into communication with Queen Amelia, who was at Cintra. In this he was successful, thanks to the good offices of loyal friends. As soon as was feasible he repaired to his palace at Mafra, having been circuitously informed that, as a fugitive, the republic would connive at his escape, that the road northwards would be open, and that he would not be

² It is about a mile and a half from Lisbon.

molested if he departed by sea, but that if he resisted he would be dealt with as an enemy. At Mafra many persons, it is said, sought out the king, and offered him their arms and their lives, but this offer evoked no other response than heartfelt thanks.

Meanwhile, the republicans were making headway. They had more than one pleasant surprise to make up for their bad beginning. They had the support of one naval officer named Machado Santos—with whom I had the pleasure of conversing on the subject—who worked marvels of organization. Single-handed, he went from street to street, from barracks to barracks, enlisting volunteers in the ranks of the peoples' army, and soon his followers were numbered by thousands. He fixed his headquarters on the Square of the Marques Pombal, and the population at once brought him oxen and sheep and goats and fruits and bread and wine, until the only difficulty experienced by his commissary was in distributing the food which came in plentifully and unceasingly. The active sympathy of the people of Lisbon stood the revolutionists in good stead.

*The good
luck of the
republi-
cans.*

Another "windfall" on which they had not counted appeared in the presence of the cadets of the Military School, who at the call of Santos broke bounds and joined the republican forces. They, too, fought splendidly, and one of them named Pimentel acquired a reputation for daring which is usually the prize of one or more hard-fought campaigns. Another man who ren-

*The cadets
join the
revolution-
ists.*

dered brilliant services was a simple private in the naval artillery. His precision in pointing the guns was so perfect that his comrades looked upon him with a feeling of awe. He had a way of announcing in advance the target at which he would point the gun, and a few seconds later it was struck. When perceiving the royal standard still waving from the palace he stated that he would blow it into space, and, having fulfilled his prediction, immediately afterwards he was cheered vociferously.

But the royalists, too, had ups as well as downs during their critical thirty hours, had there been any one to utilize them. Chief among these was the arrival of the second artillery regiment from Quelhiz. Its commander was Henriquez Conceiro, who had made a name in Africa as a clever strategist and in Portugal as a devoted royalist and a chivalrous gentleman. This man's presence seemed to turn the tide of battle. Planting his artillery in a park named after King Edward VII. of England, he opened fire on the infantry and artillery of the republicans, and made a strong impression on them. During a pause in the firing, they asked him to cease fighting for a king who had already acknowledged the republic. He refused the invitation and disbelieved the statement. But he sought out the monarch, he and his officers, in order to hearten him to resistance and to declare his intention, and that of his men, to make a resolute stand for the *régime*. On his arrival

*Conceiro
and the
royalists.*

at the palace of Cintra, however, he was informed that the king was not there. "Where is he?" he asked. "He has fled in a yacht," was the answer. Then Commander Conceiro, who had never before been known to make use of a scurrilous word, uttered some of the foulest oaths that ever passed a trooper's lips in Portugal. Retracing his steps he repaired to the republican authorities and said: "I recognize the new *régime*, and will prove a loyal citizen. But I cannot offer my military services to the republic, so tender my resignation herewith." That was practically the end.

On Wednesday morning the 5th Chasseurs surrendered, and were followed by the Municipal Guards. The republic was proclaimed at the town hall, and the revolution was an accomplished fact. The total number of dead was found to be hardly more than one hundred, for although the firing was described as heavy and destructive, Providence proved merciful to the combatants. Later on the victors showed themselves on the whole very indulgent to the vanquished, and if we except the treatment of the monks and nuns, excesses were exceedingly rare. It seems to be an established fact that during this period of intense political excitement vulgar crimes against life and property have fallen far below the average.

*The
republic
is pro-
claimed.*

The new Republican Government has now a formidable problem to cope with. It is less a work of reform than of creation out of nothing that they must endeavor

to achieve. And the number of persons qualified for this arduous task is very much less than that of the men who were able and willing to lend a hand in pulling down the rotten old fabric of the monarchy. But the best men have remained in the background. By far the most serious, capable, and versatile politicians are those of the *A Lucta* group. And chief among these is Dr. Brito Camacho, whom I have known and appreciated as physician, journalist, and politician. So long as the country possesses men of the moral and mental caliber of Brito Camacho, and of the brilliancy of Joao de Menezes, and makes the most of their services, Republican Portugal can look into the future with serenity.

*Republican
Portugal.*

[In 1910, St. Patrick's Cathedral, New York, is consecrated. Walter Wellman and his airship crew are picked up 375 miles off Cape Hatteras. International Aviation meet is held at Belmont Park, L. I. Revolution flares in Uruguay. Moissant wins \$10,000 prize for flight around the Statue of Liberty. The Imperial Chinese Parliament is summoned in Peking. Remains of the Austrian scientific exploration ship *Albatross* (lost 14 years) are found in Solomon Islands. Radium deposits are discovered in the Porcupine District, Canada. Madero proclaims himself Provisional President of Mexico. Mexicans fight the bloody battle of Cerro Prieto, Chihuahua. Andrew Carnegie gives \$10,000,000 for the promotion of peace. The California Senate adopts a woman

*Madero
proclaims
himself
Provisional
President.*

suffrage constitutional amendment. There is rioting in Hankow, China. United States troops are sent to Mexican border to preserve neutrality of American territory. Terms of proposed Reciprocity Agreement between Canada and the United States are made public in Ottawa and Washington. Fire in Constantinople destroys much of the Sublime Porte. Plague spreads in Manchuria. San Francisco receives a wireless message from a ship 4,492 miles away. Bill to abolish the veto power of the House of Lords is introduced into the House of Commons and is passed on first reading next day. The United States Senate ratifies a commercial treaty with Japan. Roosevelt opens the great Roosevelt dam in Arizona. In 1911, Madero announces that he will not lay down arms until President Diaz is out and a "free and unintimidated suffrage is assured." The Fiftieth Anniversary of Italian Unity is celebrated in Rome. President Diaz addresses Mexican Congress and outlines a plan of reform. President Taft's proposal for a general treaty of arbitration between the United States and the British Empire is supported by a great meeting of citizens at the Guildhall, London. Lloyd George introduces the Individuality and Unemployed Insurance Bill in Parliament. An opium agreement is signed at Peking. Civil War in Mexico is renewed, the insurgents capturing Juarez. British House of Commons passes the act curtailing the veto power of the House of Lords. President Diaz of Mexico resigns. Mexican Government and revolutionists make peace.]

Long-distance wireless.

Diaz of Mexico resigns.

DIAZ: THE MAKER OF MODERN MEXICO

(A.D. 1911)

E. ALEC TWEEDIE

DIAZ has been hurled from power in his eighty-first year!

The rising against him in Mexico has the character of a national revolutionary movement, the aims of which, perhaps, Madero himself has not clearly understood. One thing the nation wanted, apparently, was the stamping out of what the party considered political immorality, fostered and abetted by the acts of what they called the *grupo científico*, or grafters, and by the policy of the Minister of Finance, Limantour, in particular. Therefore, when Madero stood up as the chieftain of the revolution, inscribing on his banner the redress of this grievance, with some utopias, the people followed him without stopping to measure his capabilities. His promises were enough.

Graft in Mexico.

Diaz has reached a great age. On September 15, 1910, he celebrated his eightieth birthday. He has ruled

Mexico, with one brief interval of four years, since 1876. For thirty-five years, therefore, with one short break, the country has known no other President; and Madero, who has laid him low, was a man more or less put into office by Diaz himself. A new generation of Mexicans has grown up under the rule of Diaz. Time after time he has been re-elected with unanimity, no other candidate being nominated—nor even suggested. Is it to be wondered at that, by the time his seventh term expired in 1910, he should have at last come to regard himself as indispensable?

Had he retired in 1910 he would have done so with honor, and every hostile voice in Mexico would have been stilled. All would have been forgotten in remembrance of the immense debt that his country owed him. He would have stood out as the great historic figure of a glorious era in the national annals. It was the first time he had broken his word with the people. Staying too long, he has been driven from office by a movement of ideas, the strength of which it is evident that he never realized until too late, and by a rebellion that in the days of his vigorous autocracy he would have stamped out with his heel.

His real career began at forty-six. Up to that time he had been an officer in a somewhat disorganized army, and his ambition at the outset never soared beyond a colonelcy.

He was nearly fifty when he entered Mexico City at

*Mexico's
"Grand
Old
Man."*

the head of a revolutionary force. Romance and adventure were behind him, although personal peril still dogged his steps. He had to forget that he was a soldier, and to be born again as leader and politician, a maker and not a destroyer. In that capacity he had absolutely no experience of public affairs but such as he had gained in a small way in early years spent in Oaxaca. Yet Diaz became a ruler and a diplomat, and assumed the courtly manners of a prince.

Even at sixty he was only on the high road to his best, and he reached it about ten years later. At seventy-five he lacked nothing, either in energy or variety of power, that goes to the equipment of a ruler of men. This is especially remarkable for one of his race, born in a semi-tropical land.

Paradoxical as it may seem, his overthrow is the result of a revolution mainly pacific in its nature, and in substance a revolt of public feeling against abuses that have become stereotyped in the system of government by the too long domination of one masterful will. The military rising was but its head, spitting fire. Behind was an immense body of opinion, in favor of effecting the retirement of the President by peaceful means, and with all the honor to one who had served his country well.

In 1908 General Diaz had stated frankly, in an interview granted to an American journalist, that he was enjoying his last term of office, and at its expiration would spend his remaining years in private life. There

*Diaz
announces
that he
will retire.*

is no reason to doubt that this assurance represented his settled intention. The announcement was extensively published in the Mexican Press, and was never contradicted by the President himself. Then rumors gained currency that Diaz was not unprepared to accept nomination for the Presidency for an eighth term. The statement was at first discredited, then repeated without contradiction in a manner that could hardly have failed to excite alarm. At length came the fatal announcement that the President would stand again.

Hardly had the bell of Independence ceased ringing out in joyous clang on September 15, 1910, in celebration of free Mexico's centenary, hardly had the gorgeous *fêtes* for the President's birthday, or the homage paid him by the whole world run their course, when the spark of discontent became a blaze. He had mistaken the respect and regard of his people for an invitation to remain in office.

By the time the Presidential election approached, signs of agitation had increased. A political party rose in direct hostility, not so much to General Diaz himself or Limantour, as to the Vice-President, who, as next in the succession, in the event of the demise of the President, would have been able to rivet the autocracy on the country.

To the general hatred of this group on the part of the nation, Madero owed his success. He was almost unknown, but the malcontents were determined to act, and to act at once, and they could not afford to pick and

*The spark
of discontent
becomes a
blaze.*

*The
malcontents
choose a
leader.*

choose for a leader. As a proof that the country thought less of the democratic principles invoked than of the destruction of the official "cientificos" may be cited the fact that it at first placed all its trust and confidence in General Reyes, who is just as despotic and autocratic as General Diaz, but has at the same time, to them, a redeeming quality—his avowed opposition to the gang. Reyes refused to head the insurrection, and it was then Madero or nobody.

In the spring of 1910 Francisco I. Madero came to the front. He was a man of education, of fortune, of courage, and a lawyer by profession. He had written a book entitled the "Presidential Succession," and, although without experience in the management of State affairs, he had shown that he had the courage of his convictions. He consented to stand against Diaz in a contest for the Presidency of the Republic. *Madero.*

Energetic, courageous, and outspoken, Madero had full command of the phraseology of the demagogue. His only shortcoming in the eyes of his own party was that he had not been persecuted by the Government. The officials, alas! soon supplied this deficiency. A few days before the Presidential election in July, 1910, when making a speech at Monterey, Madero was arrested as a disturber of the peace and thrown into prison, where he was kept until the close of the poll.

The election resulted, as usual, in a triumphant ma-

jority for General Diaz, though votes were recorded, even in the capital itself, for the anti-reëlectionist leader.

*Madero
goes to
the United
States.*

As soon as opportunity offered, Madero escaped to the United States, and from that vantage-ground kept up a correspondence with his friends and partisans. Though the election had been held in July, the inauguration of the President did not take place until December, 1910.

Trouble followed trouble in the north, which, be it remembered, runs to a distance of over a thousand miles from Mexico City itself. But nothing very serious occurred, until suddenly, in the early weeks of the present year, President Taft mobilised a force of 20,000 American troops to watch the Mexican frontier. From that time events developed rapidly till the end of the Diaz régime in May. These are such recent events that there is no need to recapitulate them. Diaz saved his honor, as the phrase goes, by a declaration that he would not retire from office until peace was declared, and he kept his word. He was too ill to leave his simple home in one of the chief streets of the city, where he lived less ostentatiously than many of his fellow-citizens but this did not prevent the mob from firing upon his home. On the afternoon of May 25th, 1911, he resigned, and Senor De La Barra, formerly Minister at Washington, became provisional President until the next election, fixed for October. Madero was the hero of the hour.

*Diaz
retires.*

Three days after signing his abdication, General Diaz

was well enough to leave Mexico City. In the early hours of the morning three trains drew up filled with his own soldiers and friends, in the middle one of which the ex-President, his wife, the clever and beautiful Carmelita, Colonel Porfirio Diaz, his son, with his young wife, several children and their ten-days-old baby were seated. Along the route the train came upon a force of seven hundred rebels. A sharp encounter ensued. The revolutionists left thirty dead upon the field; the escort, which numbered but three hundred, lost only three men. The old fighting spirit returned to the old lion, and, unarmed, the ex-President descended from his car and took part in the engagement. He entered Mexico City fighting, and he has left her shores with bullets ringing in the air. This was but the second time that Diaz had left the land of his birth.

*Diaz's
departure.*

It is a peculiar circumstance from which the future historian of Mexico and its famous President will draw a moral, that Diaz had himself foreseen the evil which after five-and-thirty years has been his own undoing. No one more staunchly than he had upheld the law which sought to make impossible the re-election for a second term of the President of the Republic and the Governors of the States. In forty years of anarchy between the attainment of Mexican independence, in 1821, and the arrival of the hapless Emperor Maximilian this had been the issue at stake in a hundred battles. Nothing was easier than for a dictator, once he had secured election

to the President's chair, constitutionally so to manipulate the voting that, save by an armed rising, he could never be displaced.

That became the system. In the welter of Mexican history in the first half of the last century hardly one President succeeded another by the peaceful means of votes cast at the polls.

*Political
elections.*

Political elections were "managed" in almost every contest in the most ridiculous way. In Mexico, before the time of Diaz, there had been fifty-two dictators, presidents, or other rulers, in less than sixty years. The method was brought to full perfection by the unscrupulous Santa Anna. The other South American Republics also gave countless examples. The gravity of the danger was recognized by the founders of the Mexican Constitution in 1857, and they made the President ineligible for re-election. But this provision, though desirable, had in the divided state of the country never been enforced.

For this Diaz fought campaign after campaign—at first for President Juarez in the long struggle against Maximilian and his henchman Bazaine, which ended with the Emperor's execution. But when Juarez came forward in 1871 for a further term of the Presidency, Diaz turned against him, and placed himself at the head of a military revolt which only collapsed on the President's death.

The single term Presidency had the foremost place

in the *Pronunciamento* on which Diaz fought his way to the supreme power in 1876.

That campaign, so momentous as it proved for the future interests of Mexico, had been brought about almost entirely by the attempt of Lerdo De Tejada, President at the time, to manipulate the voting in order to secure his own re-election to office, in violation of the Constitutional law.

Diaz, therefore, could not himself be elected for a second term in 1880, and as a consequence of the principle he had himself laid down he had the misfortune to be forced to stand helplessly aside and see much of his own good work undone, under the unscrupulous Gonzales, who succeeded him.

*Diaz's
work
undone by
Gonzales.*

Therefore Diaz returned to the Presidential chair on December 1st, 1884, and never vacated it till the other day. When his four years had expired the country was under changed conditions; the immense reforms and works for the development of Mexico that he had set on foot were uncompleted; it was felt that any change in the head of the State would at that time be disastrous. And so, with substantially the universal assent of his countrymen, the Constitution was again altered, that Diaz might continue President and carry on his labors. This was not his doing. He did not initiate it; but he accepted the charge laid upon him by the nation.

*The
Constitu-
tion is
altered.*

His work is now imperishable. Mexicans, I am sure will regret the pitiful circumstance under which his fall

has come about, and he will live long in the hearts of his countrymen. Nothing can alter the fact that he made modern Mexico.

[In 1911, M. Vedrines wins the Paris-to-Madrid air-race. M. Beaumont wins the airplane race from Paris to Rome. Earthquake occurs in Mexico City before the triumphant entry of General Madero. Forty thousand women suffragists march to Albert Hall, London. Coronation of King George and Queen Mary in Westminster Abbey takes place. German Government sends warship to Agadir to protect German interests in Morocco. Anglo-Japanese Alliance is renewed for ten years. Lord Kitchener is appointed British Agent in Egypt. Ex-Shah begins his march on Teheran. Anglo-American Arbitration Treaty is signed at Washington. Franco-American Treaty is signed. Dr. Manuel Arriaga is elected President of the Portuguese Republic. Yangtze Kiang floods drown thousands. First aerial postal service is opened in England between Hendon and Windon. Portuguese Republic is formally recognized by the Powers. Madero is elected President of Mexico. Italy begins war with Turkey. Prevesa is bombarded by the Italian fleet and the Tripoli Coast is blockaded. The Duke of Connaught becomes Governor-General of Canada. Main batteries at Tripoli are bombarded by Italian vessels. The Turkish squadron arrives in the Bosphorus from the Dardenelles. California voters adopt constitu-

Madero enters the City of Mexico.

First aerial postal service.

Italy begins war on Turkey.

tional amendments for initiative, referendum, recall and woman suffrage. Revolution in China against the Manchu dynasty takes place. Mutual concessions by France and Germany in the French Congo and Cameroons end the Morocco disputes. Chinese Republic is proclaimed with General Li-Huan-Hung as President. President Caceres of Santo Domingo is assassinated. Russian advance on Persian capital is ordered. Revolutionists are successful in China. King George and Queen Mary are proclaimed Emperor and Empress of India at Delhi. United States, Great Britain, France, Germany, Japan, and Russia unite to assist the Peace Conference at Shanghai. Russian troops occupy Teheran after nine days' siege. Dr. Sun Yat Sen is elected President of the Chinese Republic. The King of Sweden gives Nobel prizes to Mme. Curie (chemistry), Professor Wien (physics), Professor Gullstrand (medicine), and Maurice Maeterlinck (literature). The International Opium Congress is held at The Hague. Naval experts report that the wreck of the *Maine* in Havana harbor was the result of an external explosion.]

*Revolution
in China.*

*Peace Con-
ference at
Shanghai.*

*Nobel
prizes
awarded.*

REVOLUTION IN CHINA

(A.D. 1911)

J. ELLIS BARKER

A FEW days ago we received the news that suddenly, and almost simultaneously, a revolution had broken out in Hupeh, Hunan, and Szechuan. These three provinces are situated in the very heart of China, in the valley of the incomparable Yangtse-kiang, China's principal highroad and trade artery. They have together about 125,000,000 inhabitants. They contain some of the greatest industrial, commercial, and mining centres of China, and they possess an importance comparable with that which Lancashire and Yorkshire have for Great Britain, and which the States of Massachusetts, Illinois, and Pennsylvania, with the towns of Boston, Chicago, St. Louis, Philadelphia, and Pittsburgh have for the United States. The position in China is extremely serious, and people are asking themselves, What are the causes of this sudden revolution, and what are its aims?

*The
position
of China
serious.*

As the character of a revolution depends largely on the

*The
personality
of Dr. Sun
Yat Sen.*

character of its leader, I would give a brief account of the impression which I received from my intercourse with Dr. Sun Yat Sen. The Doctor is a man of medium height, slight but wiry, and is forty-five years old. He speaks good English. He is very quiet and reserved in manner, and extremely moderate, cautious, and thoughtful in speech. He gives one the impression of being rather a sound and thorough than a brilliant man, rather a thinker than a man of action. He does not care to use the dramatic eloquence which appeals to the imagination and the passions of the masses, and which is usually found in political and religious reformers of the ordinary kind. But then the Chinese are perhaps not so emotional as are most Eastern and Western nations. I have heard Dr. Sun Yat Sen addressing a meeting of his countrymen. He spoke quietly and almost monotonously with hardly any gestures, but the intent way in which his audience listened to every word—his speeches occupy often three and four hours, and even then his hearers never tire of listening to him—showed me the powerful effect which he was able to exercise over his hearers by giving them a simple account of the political position in China, of the sufferings of the people, and of the progress of the revolutionary movement.

The majority of the Chinese in America are revolutionaries, and they worship their leader. Chinamen are commonly supposed to be sordid materialists, devoid of patriotism, and interested only in money-making, who

are always ready to sell their country to the enemy. The incorrectness of that widely held belief, and the influence of Dr. Sun Yat Sen, will be seen from the fact that the Chinese living outside China have given enormous sums to the revolutionary movement. According to the Doctor's statements, many have given him their entire fortune. Even the poorest shopkeepers and laundrymen contribute their mite.

The enormous sums given to the revolutionary movement.

Dr. Sun Yat Sen told me that he had millions of adherents, and described to me the organization of his society, which, with its self-supporting branches, its honorary presidents, etc., may be compared with the great political associations existing in Anglo-Saxon countries. The Doctor has led an agitator's life for more than twenty years. At first he was in favor of reform. He became a revolutionary when, at last, he recognized that all attempts to reform China by peaceful and orderly methods were quite hopeless. He told me that the revolutionary movement had received an enormous impetus when, during the short reform period inaugurated by the late Emperor, many thousands of students belonging to the best families had gone abroad, especially to Japan—in 1905 there were 10,000 Chinese students in Japan—who had come to see with their own eyes the hopeless backwardness of China, the tyranny of its Government, and the necessity of thorough reform in order to save it from utter ruin. Thus, a very large number of men belonging to the educated, cultured, and privileged

*China's
modern
army on
side of
revolu-
tionists.*

classes had become his supporters, and had spread the gospel of revolt all over the country. The Government knew the strength of the revolutionary party and feared it. A revolution would break out within two years. Practically the whole of the modern army, that is, that part of the army which has been drilled by Europeans and Japanese, were patriots, and were on the side of the revolution. The Government, being aware of this, relied for its defence on the ancient and unreformed military forces, hired cut-throats without the sense of patriotism, who fought merely for their pay. These guarded the magazines and arsenals, and were provided with plenty of ammunition. The modern army was left without ammunition. To ensure their harmlessness only five cartridges per man were allowed for firing practice, and only small parties of men were given cartridges at any time. The greatest needs of the revolutionaries were money and arms. By the seizure of the important Han-yang arsenal and treasury, the revolutionaries have obtained both at the outset of their operations, and through their control of mines and factories they can manufacture all the implements, arms, and ammunition which they need.

China has had about twenty dynasties, which have been introduced by as many revolutions, but China has remained unreformed. A change of dynasty is therefore no longer considered a remedy for China's ills. China has hitherto been governed by an absolutism which was

supposed to be paternal, but which has become tyrannical. The people are tired of being misgoverned. They wish to govern themselves. The revolutionary party desires to convert China into a republic. China proper is a loose conglomerate of eighteen semi-independent provinces ruled by Viceroys. They are to be replaced by republics having Parliaments of their own. These local Parliaments will look after purely local affairs, while national affairs will be under the control of a supreme National Parliament. The Government of China will be modeled on that of the United States or of Canada, and all has been prepared for effecting such a change. In Dr. Sun Yat Sen's opinion, the Chinese people are able to govern themselves, being industrious, orderly, and docile, especially as they have been trained in the art of self-government and co-operation through their powerful guilds and secret societies. He told me that the Chinese were revolting not against the foreigners but against their corrupt Government, against the Manchus. The Europeans dwelling in China would be safe. A reformed China would be friendly to all nations, but it would expect to be treated as a civilized nation when it had earned the respect of Europe and could no longer be reproached with barbarism.

New Government to be modeled after the United States.

The Chinese revolution is caused by the mis-government and corruption which are apparently inseparable from China's present form of government. In China there are about 400,000,000 Chinese and 5,000,000 Man-

The revolution caused by mis-government.

chus. The latter, having conquered the country, reserved to themselves all positions of power and profit. They rule through a host of more or less irresponsible and venal officials, most of whom are Manchus. Self-preservation is the first instinct in men. Owing to their great numerical inferiority it was in the interest of the Manchus that the people should be weak, ignorant, unwarlike, and disunited. Therefore the chief aim of the Manchu policy was not to maintain the integrity of the country and to promote the welfare of the people, but to preserve the power of the ruling caste and to keep the people in subjection. Intercourse with foreign nations would have been profitable to the Chinese traders, and it would have enlightened the Chinese people. However, the enlightenment of the people might become dangerous to the small ruling caste. Therefore the Manchu officials preached hatred to the foreigners, who were excluded from the country. To the Manchus a disastrous war was a smaller calamity than the existence of a national army which might overthrow them. So the Chinese army was neglected, and the country was humiliated and despoiled by all nations. Modern industries and railways would have increased the national prosperity, but as both would have increased the power and cohesion of the people, the introduction of both was forbidden. The people prayed for good and honest government. However, as the officials were Manchus they had to be humored to ensure their fidelity and support, and

*Manchu
policy.*

thus they were allowed to prey upon the people. During two and a half centuries the Chinese were ruled by an absolute and corrupt bureaucracy, and their taskmasters were aliens.

Confucianism, the prevailing doctrine of China, is neither a religion nor a system of transcendental or cosmic philosophy. It is an agnostic system of ethics, and a system of practical, and purely temporal, common-sense philosophy which sees no further than this earth. It takes practically no notice whatever of the question of an after-life, of eternity, of future rewards and punishments, of God. It teaches merely that one ought to do good because it is man's duty to do good. Confucianism is entirely concerned with the relations between man and man, and it deals very fully with the question of government, with the administration of justice, and other practical matters. Confucianism is the most democratic of doctrines. It condemns in the most unsparing terms governmental absolutism and favoritism, the appointment of incompetent officials, and official tyranny and extortion—the very evils which exist in China. All Chinese study the Classics as soon as they have mastered the alphabet.

*The
teachings
of Con-
fucianism.*

Official appointments have, until lately, been made solely on the strength of purely literary attainments, although we read in the Confusian Analects, "Though a man be able to recite the three hundred odes but be incapable as an administrator or an ambassador, and can-

not work without assistance, of what practical use is then his knowledge?"

Chinese literature.

Chinese literature is extremely rich in telling proverbs. Many of these insist on the supremacy of the people: "The people's will is the will of Heaven." Others emphasize the authority of the law, and complain of the tyranny of officialdom, the venality of the judges, and the necessity of forming secret societies for the mutual protection of the people. A proverb says: "The mandarin derives his power from the law, the people from the secret societies." Another warns us: "The doors of the law courts stand wide open, but you had better not enter if you are only strong in right, but not strong in cash." Another tells us: "The friendship of mandarins impoverishes; that of merchants makes rich."

The foregoing extracts suffice to show that the tyrannical misgovernment, official incompetence and obstructive conservatism prevalent throughout China are not due to the influence of Confucianism, as has hitherto been believed in the West. They are opposed to Confucianism, and are condemned by it.

The condition of the Chinese people.

The condition of the Chinese people has been well described by Dr. Sun Yat Sen, in 1897, in the following words, which incidentally show his great literary ability and power and his wonderful command of the English language:

"The form of rule which obtains in China at present may be summed up in a few words. The people have

no say whatever in the management of imperial, national, or even municipal affairs. The mandarins, or local magistrates, have full power of adjudication, from which there is no appeal. Their word is law and they have full scope to practise their machinations with complete irresponsibility, and every officer may fatten himself with impunity. Extortion by officials is an institution. It is the condition on which they take office; and it is only when the bleeder is a bungler that the Government steps in with pretended benevolence to ameliorate, but more often to complete, the depletion.

"English readers are probably unaware of the smallness of the established salaries of provincial magnates. They will scarcely credit that the Viceroy of, say, Canton, ruling a country with a population larger than that of Great Britain, is allowed as his legal salary the paltry sum of £60 a year; so that, in order to live and maintain himself in office, accumulating fabulous riches the while, he resorts to extortion and the selling of justice. So with education. The results of examinations are the one means of obtaining official notice. Granted that a young scholar gains distinction, he proceeds to seek public employment and, by bribing the Peking authorities, an official post is hoped for. Once obtained, as he cannot live on his salary, perhaps he even pays so much annually for his post, licence to squeeze is the result, and the man must be stupid indeed who cannot, when backed up by the Government, make himself rich

*The
corruption
of the
officials.*

enough to buy a still higher post in a few years. With advancement comes increased licence and additional facilities for his enrichment, so that the cleverest 'squeezer' ultimately can obtain money enough to purchase the highest positions.

"This official thief, with his mind warped by his mode of life, is the ultimate authority in all matters of social, political, and criminal life. It is a fatal system, an *imperium in imperio*, an unjust autocracy which thrives by its own rottenness. But this system of fattening on the public vitals—the selling of power—is the chief means by which the Manchu dynasty continues to exist. With this legalized corruption stamped as the highest ideal of government, who can wonder at the existence of a strong undercurrent of dissatisfaction among the people?

"The masses of China, although kept officially in ignorance of what is going on in the world around them, are anything but stupid people. All European authorities on this matter state that the latent ability of the Chinese is considerable; and many place it even above that of the masses in any other country, European and Asiatic. Books on politics are not allowed; daily newspapers are prohibited in China; the world around, its people and politics, are shut out; while none below the grade of a mandarin of the seventh rank is allowed to read Chinese geography, far less foreign. The laws of the present dynasty are *not* for public reading; they are

*The
masses
kept in
ignorance.*

known only to the highest officials. The reading of books on military subjects is, in common with that of all other prohibited matter, not only forbidden but is even punishable by death. No one is allowed on pain of death to invent anything new, or to make known any new discovery. In this way are the people kept in darkness, while the Government doles out to them what scraps of information it finds will suit its own needs.

"The 'Literati' of China are allowed to study only the Chinese Classics and the commentaries thereon. These consist of the writings of the old philosophers, the works of Confucius and others. But even of these, all parts relating to the criticism of their superiors are carefully expunged, and only those parts are published for public reading which teach obedience to authorities as the essence of all instruction. In this way is China ruled—or rather misruled—namely, by the enforcement of blind obedience to all existing laws and formalities. *Blind obedience.*

"To keep the masses in ignorance is the constant endeavor of Chinese rule."

Matters have very slightly improved since 1897. Still, the position is in the main as it was then, and the people are worse off than they were fourteen years ago, through the very great increase in taxation, and its constantly growing arbitrariness.

The revolutionary principles of Dr. Sun Yat Sen were laid down in a pamphlet of his entitled "The Solution of the Chinese Question," which was published in 1904.

The revolutionary principles of Dr. Sun Yat Sen.

As far as I know there is no English translation of that important pamphlet. Some of its most important passages are as follows:

"The Chinese have no real Government. The term 'the Chinese Government' is a term without meaning. The Manchus were a tribe of savage nomads who wandered about the deserts of the Amur before they came in contact with the Chinese. Often they made inroads into China and plundered the peaceful inhabitants near the frontier. Towards the end of the Ming dynasty civil war broke out in China and, taking advantage of the confusion, the Manchus conquered Peking. That was in 1644. The Chinese did not want to be enslaved by foreigners, and offered a desperate resistance. To overcome the opposition, the Manchus massacred millions of people, warriors and peaceful inhabitants, old and young, women and children. They burned their houses and forced the Chinese people to adopt the Manchu costume. Tens of thousands of people were killed for disobeying their orders to wear the queue. After terrible slaughter the Chinese were forced to submit to the Manchu laws.

"The first measure of the conquerors was to keep the people in ignorance. They destroyed and burned the Chinese libraries and books. They prohibited the formation of societies and the holding of meetings for the discussion of public affairs. Their aim was to destroy the patriotic spirit of the Chinese to such a degree that they should in course of time forget that they had to obey

The Chinese conquered by the Manchus.

foreign laws. The Manchus number 5,000,000, whilst the Chinese number about 400,000,000. Hence the conquerors live under the constant fear that the Chinese should wake up and reconquer their country.

"It is generally believed among the people in the West that the Chinese wish to keep themselves apart from foreign nations and that the Chinese ports could be opened to foreign trade only at the point of the bayonet. That belief is erroneous. History furnishes us with many proofs that before the arrival of the Manchus the Chinese were in close relations with the neighboring countries, and that they evinced no dislike towards foreign traders and missionaries. Buddhism was introduced into China by an Emperor of the Han dynasty, and the people received the new religion with enthusiasm. Foreign merchants were allowed to travel freely through the Empire. During the Ming dynasty there was no anti-foreign spirit. The first minister became Roman Catholic, and his intimate friend, Mathieu Ricci, the Jesuit missionary in Peking, was held in high esteem by the people.

"With the arrival of the Manchus the ancient policy of toleration gradually changed. The country was entirely closed to foreign commerce. The missionaries were driven out. The Chinese Christians were massacred. Chinamen were forbidden to emigrate. Disobedience was punished with death. Why? Simply because the Manchus wished to exclude foreigners and desired the

Change of policy.

Anti-foreign spirit created by the Manchus.

people to hate them for fear that the Chinese, enlightened by the foreigners, might wake up to a sense of their nationality. The anti-foreign spirit created by the Manchus came to its climax in the Boxer Risings of 1900, and the leaders of that movement were none other than members of the reigning family.

"It is therefore clear that the policy of exclusion practised by China is the result of Manchu egotism. It is not approved of by the majority of the Chinese. Foreigners traveling in China have often remarked that they are better received by the people than by the officials.

"During the 260 years of the Tartar rule we have suffered countless wrongs, and the principal are the following:

The principal wrongs inflicted by the Manchus.

"1. The Manchurian Tartars govern for the benefit of their race and not for that of their subjects.

"2. They oppose our intellectual and material progress.

"3. They treat us as a subject race and deny us the rights and privileges of equality.

"4. They violate our inalienable rights to life, liberty, and property.

"5. They promote and encourage the corruption of officialdom.

"6. They suppress the liberty of speech.

"7. They tax us heavily and unjustly without our consent.

"8. They practise the most barbarous tortures.

"9. They deprive us unjustly of our rights.

"10. They do not fulfil their duty of protecting the life and the property of the people living under their jurisdiction. . . .

"Although we have reasons to hate the Manchus we have tried to live in peace with them, but without success. Therefore we, the Chinese people, have resolved to adopt pacific measures, if possible, and violent ones if necessary, in order to be treated with justice and to establish peace in the Far East and throughout the world. . . .

"A new Government, an enlightened and progressive Government, must be substituted for the old one. When that has been done China will not only be able to free herself from her troubles, but also may be able to deliver other nations from the necessity of defending their independence and integrity. Among the Chinese there are many of high culture who, we believe, are able to undertake the task of forming a new Government. Carefully thought out plans have been made for a long time for transforming the old Chinese monarchy into a republic.

"The masses of the people are ready to receive a new form of Government. They wish for a change of their political and social conditions in order to escape from the deplorable conditions of life prevailing at present. The country is in a state of tension. It is like a sun-scorched forest, and the slightest spark may set fire to

The masses ready for new Government.

it. The people are ready to drive the Tartars out. Our task is great. It is difficult, but not impossible."

Dr. Sun Yat Sen's assertions, contained in the foregoing, that a reformed China would "establish peace in the Far East and throughout the world," seems at first sight rather exaggerated. However, I think there can be no doubt that a reform of China, a reform which would regenerate the country, would tend not only to establish peace in the Far East but would also tend to diminish the dangers of war threatening Europe and America. The greatest danger to the peace in the Far East lies undoubtedly in China's weakness. As long as China is weak, Russia, Japan, and other nations desirous of expansion will feel tempted to acquire Chinese territory; and as a peaceful partition of China among the numerous claimants is out of the question, a weak China will continue to be a danger, not merely to the peace of Asia, but to that of Europe and America as well. But for China's weakness the Russo-Japanese War would never have occurred. China's weakness has caused in the past dangerous friction between Russia and England, between France and England, between Germany and England, and between the United States and Japan, and it has more than once raised the spectre of war between these countries. The Sick Man of the East is as great a danger to the peace of the world as is the Sick Man of the West.

The eighteen Provinces of China proper, with their

*China's
weakness
cause of
Russo-
Japanese
War.*

400,000,000 inhabitants, occupy only a little more than one-third of the gigantic territory of all China. If we look at the map we find that China is almost isolated from the outer world, for those parts of China which do not touch the sea are separated from the neighbor nations by an enormous belt of deserts and mountains which make an invasion by large foreign armies across the land frontiers and an attack by large Chinese armies upon her Continental neighbors equally difficult if not impossible. The populous provinces of China proper are separated from British India by the tremendous mountain wastes of Thibet, a country which is almost four times as large as the whole of the United Kingdom, and they are separated from Russia by the enormous deserts of Mongolia and Turkestan, which together are fifteen times as large as the United Kingdom. Yet these countries have together only 10,000,000 inhabitants. We can best represent to ourselves their desolation and the sparsity of their inhabitants by imagining that the whole of the United Kingdom was inhabited by 500,000 people, a number which would correspond to the population of the outlying portions of China.

England and the United States, the great protagonists of popular government in every country, are considered to be the fairest nations by the people in the Far East, who are aware that Great Britain and the United States have in the past invariably shown their active sympathy for all nations struggling for freedom. Many

*China's
confidence
in Eng-
land and
the United
States.*

Chinamen have told me that they look to Great Britain and to the United States for sympathy and encouragement in their attempt to rid themselves of an odious tyranny, and that they look for their active support and assistance in the event that other nations should try to occupy Chinese territory at a time when the Chinese are fighting among themselves. England has a great responsibility in the present struggle, and has a great task to perform.

[In 1912, the first important naval engagement of the war between Turkey and Italy occurs in the Red Sea, Italian cruisers sinking seven Turkish gunboats. President Taft signs the proclamation admitting New Mexico as forty-seventh State. A new world's speed record for airplanes (88 miles an hour) is made by Jules Vedrines at Pau. Dr. Sun Yat Sen is inaugurated at Nanking as provisional President of the new Chinese Republic. Key West Extension of the Florida East Coast Railway is opened. Asquith introduces Irish Home Rule Bill into Parliament. President Taft signs the proclamation admitting Arizona as the forty-eighth State in the Union. The Manchu dynasty in China comes to an end with the abdication of the child emperor Pu Yi and the recognition of the republic. Yuan Shih-kai is elected President of the Chinese Republic by the National Assembly. The Italian Parliament is reopened with royal decree proclaiming the annexation of Tripoli and Cyrenaica, rati-

*New
Mexico
and
Arizona
made
States.*

*Manchu
dynasty
ended in
China.*

fied two days later by Senate. The Italian army uses dirigibles for the first time in warfare. General Orozco, military governor of Chihuahua, Mexico, turns against the Madero Government and seizes the State for the revolutionists. The United States ratifies the general treaties of arbitration with Great Britain and France with important amendments. German naval bill provides for sixty large ships and forty cruisers. Captain Roald Amundsen arrives at Hobart, Tasmania, and announces that his expedition planted the Norwegian flag at the South Pole, December 14, 1911. A French protectorate is established over Morocco. Floods in Mississippi Valley cover 200 square miles, render 30,000 persons homeless (damage, \$10,000,000). The liner *Titanic*, White Star Line, struck an iceberg, in latitude $41^{\circ} 46' N.$, longitude $50^{\circ} 14' W.$, and went down, with great loss of life. The *Carpathia* arrived in New York with 495 passengers and 210 crew of the wrecked *Titanic*. The death of Frederick VIII., King of Denmark, and the accession of his son, Christian X., occur.]

*Italy uses
dirigibles
in war.*

*Amundsen
discovers
South
Pole.*

*Titanic
disaster.*



ROALD AMUNDSEN—FIRST MAN TO REACH THE SOUTH POLE. (*Pages 313-319*)

FROM A PHOTOGRAPH

AT THE SOUTH POLE

(A.D. 1912)

BY ONE OF THE PARTY

THE fourteen of us who have come into the Thames include all the South Pole shore party except Captain Amundsen, who is now busy in Buenos Aires writing the book of his experiences, and he will not come to Europe until August. Toward the close of the year he proposes to rejoin the *Fram* at Buenos Aires, and make an attempt via Cape Horn to reach the North Pole. Seven or eight of us intend to rejoin him on that expedition. There will only be fourteen in the new trip, instead of the twenty-one who sailed south, but in attempting the North Pole there is no need to furnish a landing party.

Even apart from the achievement of reaching the South Pole, our voyage has been a great success, and in the conditions under which we made it there was no risk. None of us have at any time had any feeling of having been in trouble.

The voyage a success.

There have been toil and dangers, but the surmount-

*Captain
Amundsen
a fearless
leader.*

ing of these has been a question of organization, and that was the work of Captain Amundsen. He is a splendid leader, supreme in organization, and the essential in arctic or antarctic travel is to think out the difficulties before they arise. When that is thoroughly done everything goes smoothly and the difficulties resolve themselves into a test of endurance.

*Danger
from ice
crevasses.*

The chief of the dangers we encountered were the crevasses in the ice. Of these I sometimes dream. One day Captain Johannsen was driving his sleigh, and the foremost of his dogs dropped into a crevasse and had to be abandoned. Usually it was possible to make a bridge with our skis and pull the dogs back to safety by their harness.

One of the closest shaves experienced was by the Southern party. On that occasion the dogs got safely over a crevasse and continued pulling, but the sleigh fell in. One of the party had to climb down to the sleigh, unpack everything that it contained, and arrange for its contents to be pulled up piece by piece, followed by the sleigh itself. That was a difficult bit of work, for the snow and ice at the edge of a crevasse are often only a few inches thick, and liable at any moment to give way when weight is put upon them.

Our mean temperature for the time we were in the antarctic regions constitutes a record. The figure was 60 degrees Centigrade below freezing point, the lowest being 77 degrees. A good idea of the intensity of the cold

may be obtained from the fact that on one of the sleighing expeditions the brandy froze in the bottle and was served out in lumps. It did not taste much like brandy then, but it burned our throats as we sucked it.

Several of the members got more or less frostbitten. You are bound to suffer in this way in polar exploration, but it does not matter much if it is only on your hands or face. The trouble is when it attacks you in the feet. It is the same sort of feeling as burning. Then the pain disappears, and you know that you are frostbitten.

In the spring of 1911 Captain Amundsen made too early a start for the Southern expedition, and he had to return, because three of the party had their feet frostbitten. All the time we were without a doctor, but we needed none, for Captain Amundsen had had two years of medical training.

Despite the cold weather was extremely favorable. We had expected heavy gales, but, as a matter of fact, the wind was no heavier than you meet with elsewhere.

Animal life, except on the coast, was non-existent. On the shores of the Bay of Whales, where we had our hut, life was abundant. The bay is rightly named, for whales were extraordinarily common, and there were crowds, too, of seals, penguins, and gulls. We sent back a collection with the *Fram* the first time she left us, and were able to supplement it when we returned this time. The animals were amazingly tame, and the seals and penguins frequently walked right up to the doors of our

*Animal life
non-
existent.*

hut. We obtained cinematograph pictures of them, and they will be shown by Captain Amundsen when he lectures on the voyage.

Thanks to the wealth of animal life in the Bay of Whales we were never short of fresh food. Lest we should not find this source of supply, we had taken with us between twenty and thirty tons of dried fish for the dogs, and large quantities of dried pemmican that proved very useful for them on the way out. It was particularly on their account that we welcomed the supply of fresh meat. For ourselves we found the penguins and gulls were excellent as a change from tinned meat. They taste very much like partridge, and all the time we were at the hut there was not a single day that fresh meat did not figure at least once on our bill of fare. It entirely saved us from scurvy.

*Food
cached.*

Food proved no difficulty on our expedition. We have cached in the antarctic regions as much food as will last for three years. We left our hut in complete order, ready for occupation. There is food in it. The sleeping bags are ready for use. The cooking stove is in perfect order, and beside it lies a box of matches. A thousand yards from the hut is a special cache of provisions marked with a large flagpole, so that any one can find it.

The Southern expedition was well equipped. There were four sleighs, each about eleven feet long, with span runners, and weighing fifty-five pounds. Each sleigh carried four provision cases, one bearing also Captain

Amundsen's private baggage, and the remaining three the tent, cooking gear, sleeping bags, three compasses, 198 pounds of petroleum, and various apparatus. Thirteen dogs were attached to each sleigh, the weight amounting to between 850 and 900 pounds. To ease the dogs two days' rest was taken at each depot. Between the 84th and 86th degrees a chain of ice mountains had to be negotiated. Two tremendous peaks about 15,000 feet high were named Don Pedro Christophersen and Frithjof Nansen.

The weather became very severe, and the party were obliged to kill and eat several of their dogs. For some days the party traveled on a huge glacier, El Diablo, after which a tramp had to be made in the teeth of a blinding storm.

*The dogs
killed for
food.*

Conditions then improved, and on Dec. 14th a hole was dug at the pole, and with all hands on the staff the Norwegian flag was raised. A tent was erected over the spot, and clothes, food, and other articles which it is hoped may be of use to the next visitor were placed inside. The site was named Pol Heim. After three days of observation the return journey was begun.

The party arrived back at the hut early in the morning of the long Summer day. They had been expected daily, but several of the party were out when they arrived. The success of the expedition was celebrated by a special dinner.

Plenty of new land has been explored by the southern

New
lands
explored.

and the eastern parties. We found that the range discovered by Sir Ernest Shackleton runs all across the country. Both parties made geological collections as far as was possible, and Captain Amundsen will have a good deal that is new to report of King Edward VII. Land, which was discovered by Captain Scott. The eastern expedition in King Edward VII. Land was conducted by Lieutenant Prestrud, who had two companions, and they named one of the peaks after Captain Scott. It is easy to understand why Captain Scott could not explore the country, for it is bordered by ice forty feet high, and is quite unapproachable by a ship. The presence of iron was detected by the compass, but no traces were found either of coal or gold. Naturally, it was not possible to make anything approaching to a complete study of the district, for all the time it was necessary to travel quickly, as can be imagined when it is remembered that Captain Amundsen did his return journey from the Pole to the hut without a rest, traveling continuously from Dec. 17th to Jan. 26th. In collecting specimens, the work was in many ways like Alpine climbing, for we often had to descend by ropes on to the face of the cliffs, to get at the land where it was not covered by snow or ice.

Meeting
the Terra
Nova.

Our most exciting experience was the sighting of the British and the Japanese expeditions. In 1911 we had a most cordial meeting with the *Terra Nova*. We had seen nothing for six months, and naturally were excited at meeting her. We were with her people altogether about

twelve hours. We had finished building our hut the day before, and they were the first guests we received. They came to us for breakfast, and we paid a return visit to them for luncheon.

It was just at the time that the southern expedition had returned toward the end of January. The ice in the bay was still tight, but then a fortunate gale broke it up and drove both the *Tainan Maru* and the *Fram* out to sea. That gale was a very good thing for us, for instead of having to transport our things ten miles, the *Fram* was able to come back within a couple of miles of the hut. When we left a day or two later the tents were still there.

A fortunate gale.

Sir Ernest Shackleton has put forward the view that the bay ice is changing. Between 1900 and 1901 he reports a large piece was broken off. During our two years' stay there was no change in it.

Much of the success of the expedition depended on the dogs, which behaved splendidly. From the time of the start we made them our pets, and each member of the shore party, including Captain Amundsen, was responsible for one of the teams, each man invariably feeding his own dogs. This is an important point, as a great deal depends on the dogs becoming fond of their drivers. While Captain Scott was able to get more work out of his ponies as long as they were on firm ice, it was the opinion of our expedition that dogs were superior for the varying conditions.

*Woodrow
Wilson
nominated
for Presi-
dent.*

*The
Asquith
Home Rule
Bill.*

*Pro-
gressives
nominate
Roosevelt.*

[In 1912, Theodore Roosevelt advocates woman suffrage. Governor Woodrow Wilson of New Jersey is nominated for President on the 46th ballot in the Democratic National Convention in Baltimore. German battleship squadron visits New York. Mexican revolutionists, under General Orozco, are defeated in a battle south of Chihuahua. The International Radio-Telegraph Conference in London adopts a series of recommendations concerning the use of wireless at sea. The first convention of the Progressive Party is held in Atlantic City. Asquith is welcomed on his visit to Ireland and promises an early passage of the Home Rule Bill. Albanian revolutionists capture the town of Pristina. Great Britain plans larger navy to meet Germany's preparations. Mexico and the United States agree over boundary near El Paso, the land to be purchased by the United States. Mutsuhito, forty-four years Emperor of Japan, dies in Tokio and is succeeded by the Crown Prince Yoshihito. United States Senate passes Panama Canal Bill. The Progressive Party in session in Chicago nominates Theodore Roosevelt for President and Governor Hiram Johnson of California for Vice-President. One hundred Bulgarians are massacred by Mohammedans in European Turkey. Mulai Hafid, Sultan of Morocco, abdicates and is succeeded by his brother, Mulai Youssef. The United States intervenes in Nicaragua. The Nicaraguan revolutionary leader, Mena, surrenders to the Americans. Nineteenth Universal Peace Congress meets in Genoa. A

great Anti-Home Rule demonstration is held in Belfast. *Demonstrations of the*
Ulsterites sign a covenant of resistance to Home Rule. *Ulsterites.*
Bulgaria, Serbia and Greece order the mobilization of
their army reserves to force Turkey to institute reforms
in Macedonia. Montenegro declares war on Turkey. The
Nobel Prize for Medicine is awarded to Dr. Alexis Car-
rel of the Rockefeller Institute.]

THE PANAMA CANAL¹

(A.D. 1912)

STEPHEN BONSAI

THE Isthmus of Panama runs nearly east and west, and the canal traverses it from Colon on the north to Panama on the south, in a general direction from northwest to southeast, the Pacific terminus being twenty-two miles east of the Atlantic entrance.

The greatest difficulty of the canal project now nearing completion was and is the control and disposal of the waters of the Chagres River, and its many tributaries. The Chagres runs a circuitous serpentine course, backwards and forwards across the Isthmus from its source in the San Blas Mountains, emptying into the Caribbean Sea a mile or two west of Limon Bay. One of the merits claimed for the canal plan as finally adopted is that it converts what was an obstacle into the motive power of the colossal project, for without the formerly greatly feared floods of the Chagres the canal would simply be a dry ditch, useless for navigation.

*The
waters
of the
Chagres.*

¹ Reprinted from *The American Mediterranean*, by Stephen Bonsai (New York, 1912); Moffat, Yard & Co., publishers. By permission.

The American canal consists of a sea-level entrance channel from Limon Bay to Gatun, about seven miles long, forty-one feet deep at mean tide, and with a bottom width of five hundred feet. At Gatun the canal becomes a high-level canal, from which it takes its name. Here a mammoth dam has been constructed across the valley by which the waters of the Chagres River are impounded and a lake, which will have an area of about a hundred and sixty-four square miles, is formed. This high level is maintained until Pedro Miguel, thirty-two miles away, is reached. Here the Pacific side of the lake is confined by a dam between the hills, and here also the descent towards a lower level begins through the locks.

*The
Gatun
dam.*

The Gatun dam, which is the bulwark of the reservoir lake, is nearly one mile and a half long, measured on its crest, fully half a mile wide at its base, and about four hundred feet wide at the water surface, and the crest, as planned, will be at an elevation of one hundred and fifteen feet above mean sea-level, and about thirty feet above the expected normal level of the lake. Of the total length of the dam only five hundred feet, or one-fifteenth part, will be exposed to the maximum water head or pressure of eighty-five feet. As a matter of fact, this bulwark is a mountain rather than a dam, and it is confidently expected that a view of its colossal proportions will disarm those critics of the project who have ever thought to see in an earthen dam at this point the fatal weakness of the high-level plan.

The spillway in the dam is a concrete-lined opening twelve hundred feet long and three hundred feet wide cut through a hill of rock nearly in the centre of the dam, the bottom of the spillway opening being ten feet above sea-level. There are six double locks of concrete in the canal, three pairs in flight at Gatun, with a combined lift or drop of eighty-five feet. One pair at Pedro Miguel with a lift or drop of thirty and a third feet, and two pairs at Miraflores with a combined lift or drop of fifty-four feet eight inches at mean tide. For sixteen miles from the Gatun dam the canal channel will be a thousand feet broad, then for four miles it will narrow to eight hundred feet and for four miles farther, indeed to the northern entrance of Culebra cut at Bas Obispo, it will have a width of five hundred feet, with depth varying from eighty-five feet to forty-five feet the minimum. The water-level in the cut will, of course, be that of the lake and with a minimum depth of forty-five feet. Through the cut the minimum bottom width of the canal, three hundred feet, will be reached.

On the Pacific side of the cut or continental divide the canal work consists, in addition to the locks already enumerated, of the breakwaters extending from Balboa to Naos Island, a distance of a little more than three miles, and the excavation of the canal and ocean channel to deep water in the Pacific. At the Pacific entrance of the canal the fluctuations of tide are considerable, amounting to nearly twenty feet. The arrangements in

*The
Pacific
side.*

the form of gates in the tidal lock, by which this obstacle is to be met, are new and untried, and there is no absolute certainty that they will work successfully. Here we are face to face with one of several important details of the great construction which are absolutely without precedent, and whose strength or weakness will only be apparent when the canal is completed.

*Length of
canal.*

The length of the canal from shore-line to shore-line is about forty miles. From deep water to deep water it is ten miles longer. Throughout its course there are no lazy turns, a thing which the mariner notes with delight. The changing course is met by a succession of twenty-two clean-cut angles, without excessive curvature in any place such as would retard or endanger navigation.

Even from the above fragmentary sketch of the canal project the vital importance of an adequate water supply will be apparent. Critics of the high-level plan, which we adopted, have not of late so frequently repeated their criticisms of the Gatun dam, but on the question of whether we have enough water to work the canal they are far from being silent. And, of course, in a sense their criticism is not without foundation—however magnificent the dam, however wonderful the locks, and however accurate the electrical appliances to supply the power, sea-going ships will not be able to pass from ocean to ocean, and the dream of centuries will not be realized, unless the water-level of forty-five feet is always maintained in the channel of the interoceanic waterway.

*The
water-level.*

The confidence of the canal engineers in the adequacy of the visible water supply to maintain the necessary water-level is based on figures, measurements, and observations which were started by the French in 1880, and have been continued by ourselves. What appear to be liberal allowances are made for evaporation and seepage and leakage at the water gates of the locks. However, should these figures prove to be deceptive, should in the dry season water not be forthcoming in sufficient quantities for all the lockages desired, the canal will not remain on our hands as the hopeless wreck of a colossal blunder, as these critics maintain will be the case. To meet this contingency, which it is hoped, and with much show of reason, will never arise, a suitable site has been chosen up the Chagres River, ten miles away from the canal prism, where in the season of floods and rains great quantities of water could be accumulated, to be drawn upon in the dry season, in case of shortage. The site of this emergency or secondary dam has been selected and the plan fully worked out, but construction work has not begun, and I understand will not be, until the necessity for the same becomes more apparent. *The emergency dam.*

The great work as outlined above is presided over by Colonel Goethals the master-builder, seconded by Colonel Hodges, assistant chief engineer and designer of the permanent structure of the canal. It is subdivided into three main sections, Colonel Sibert of the engineers being in charge of the Atlantic Division, while Colonel Gail- *The engineers.*

lard, also of the Army, is in charge of the central division, which includes the Gatun lake and the Culebra cut. The Pacific Division is the peculiar domain of Mr. S. B. Williamson, a civil engineer of great distinction, one of the many such who are numbered among the alumni of the Virginia Military Institute. Admiral Rousseau is the worthy representative of the Navy in the great work, while the duties of Mr. Joseph B. Bishop, the secretary of the Commission, are many and exacting, as are those in a different sphere of Mr. Thatcher, the civil administrator of the Canal Zone.

The first days of the visitor (if he is a layman) in the Canal Zone, as a rule, leave only a confused recollection of many things seen and little understood. Generally he rushes wildly about for a week of bewildered days, dividing his time with strict impartiality between the many great and striking features of the work. Then, if he is wise, he settles down and tries to get upon closer and more intimate terms with some one of the wonders unfolded, that one probably which he flatters himself he understands. I, charmed by their simplicity, gradually became identified with the water-gates of the Gatun lock, at the Atlantic entrance to the high level. Truly, as the foreman explained, the mechanism of the gates is within the grasp of the most simple-minded, merely "an open and shut game," as he said, but of enthralling interest, for here the waters of the Atlantic will make their first onward rush to wreck the work of soaring man, and

here, if all goes well, the dreadnoughts and the ocean greyhounds alike will be made to walk upstairs.

And here everything is on a gigantic scale. The men who are building these great water-gates at Gatun treat appliances that handle fifty-ton weights as though they were feather dusters, with as much nonchalance as if they were sewing machines. This is a place where the roar of the sledge hammers is ceaseless, and the drumming of the riveting irons is never hushed. Each leaf of the mitred gate costs, I believe, a hundred thousand dollars, and the great rivets by which the leaves are fastened into place are doubtless not as cheap as ten-penny nails. In the twilight of the lock interior the rivets are hurled from the heating furnaces to where they are needed. As they fly through the air to the great gates which are being forged to keep out the floods of the Atlantic, they look like nothing half so much as a shower of meteors rushing through the darkling air into space.

The magnitude of operations.

Here at the first water-gate of the Gatun locks and beyond by the timbered coffer-dam, which to-day alone protects and shields the mitred gates of iron from the onrush of the Atlantic tides, perhaps the advanced state of the work is most apparent and you soon fall into the illusion that everything is ready for shipping until the cold calculating foreman, with the steel-blue eye, comes along and blasts your dream by the admixture of a few, to me, wholly unsympathetic facts, but at all events, even the foreman cannot deny this, the picture changes

*Every
hour spells
progress.*

every day, and every hour spells progress somewhere. One day I rode through the drainage canal at the bottom of the locks and came back at noon the next day to repeat the performance, only to find the outlet through which we had steamed so gaily, closed with a corselet of steel, which was being flooded by a river of cement. The little engine in which we had traveled was entirely cut off from the railway system, and the engineer was not a little perturbed at the separation. He came from Colorado and did not like being a one-horse railway by himself. "The Superintendent wants me to fetch and carry down in this here canyon for a month or two," he explained, "but some day he will drop a chain from a crane and haul me out to open air and the main system again, at least that's his promise."

And one day as I lingered by the coffer-dam I saw the fate of that water which had been so presumptuous as to threaten the water-gates with flood and the cement-larkers with drowning. The engineers had slipped another dam behind the pressing flood, and quietly and without noise of any kind the water which I and many another observer had thought destined to be first in the lock was being squirted out over an adjacent prairie. After the water was out the suction dredges sucked up thousands of yards of slime, filled up a little lake, by means of their great extension-pipes, and here and there reduced mountains to molehills. In a few hours many familiar features of the landscape had disappeared. When

all the ooze was sucked out, the drilling machines were placed on the bed rock that was now disclosed to view, and one wall began to rise which is to protect the vast lock structure from earth slides and another to guide the incoming steamers to their first resting place on their epoch-making journey across the continental divide. So you see to-day the freckle-faced, flannel-shirted hydraulic engineer can do all the things to the ocean that King Canute could not.

*Familiar
features
of the
landscape
disappear.*

Suddenly the eleven o'clock whistle echoes through the yellow canyon, and the uproar from many machines dies slowly, it would seem reluctantly away, and the voices of the foremen can be heard shouting: "Pick 'em up, pick 'em up!" And the men turn their backs on the great water-gates, which are ajar. Just as the whistle sounded a trained and, as it would seem, thoroughly domesticated traveling crane had deposited with precision and with something like respectful obedience to the touch of the button or the turn of the lever, at their very feet, an eighteen-ton girder for one leaf of the water-gate, which in the fulness of time is destined to hold back the waters of the ocean. The chains are loosened of their burden, and the riveters, climbing down from their perches, coil the chains about their bodies as if they were ropes of flowers and shout: "Pick 'em up! Haul away!" I wish you could see then the dark despair that is depicted on the faces of the men on the lower level, whose fate it is to puddle about in the swamps of cement

*"Pick
'em up!"*

below and who, by reason of the great rubber trousers which they wear, and the uneasy element, neither liquid nor solid, in which their working hours are lived, are not quick movers.

"Pick 'em up! Pick 'em up!" the cry resounds through the ravine. Some one touches the button or some one turns the lever and the traveling crane hoists away out of the depths a score or so of half-naked men with beads of perspiration dripping from their bare khaki-colored backs. As they squirm in and out among the chains and perform acrobatic feats that made at least one observer's heart sink into his boots, they are shot out of the yellow canyon, and swinging clear of the earth, dangle for a moment some fifty feet overhead, a glowing tangled knot of humanity, that recalls some masterpiece from the chisel of Cellini more than anything I had ever seen in life before. Then they are dropped softly down to the top level of the lock structure and start for dinner quietly, just as though they had stepped off a trolley car.

Out of the glare of the sun the men pass into the subdued light and the welcome coolness of the bird cage-shaped and wired eating houses, which give the whole line of our new waterway such a very Japanese appearance. As they pass out of the sunlight into the twilight beyond the turnstile, the men finger little brass numbered checks, like the old-fashioned trunk checks of the last decade, which hang from their belts and serve to identify them. I believe, as a man's work is done and a

*The brass
checks.*

section of the great work finished, these checks are called in and the man passes out into the world with nothing tangible to show that he has played his part in that great work which is the wonder of the day and likely to remain the miracle of the ages. I think every man who sees the thing through or does his little part of it with credit should be allowed to retain this medal of highest honor, this Victoria Cross, this emblem of membership in that greater Society of the Cincinnati.²

When the traveler comes to Culebra, fortunately for him he cannot see all the wonders and all the horrors of the crooked, snaky "cut" at once, and so he escapes a very disagreeable moment. It is best to take the troubles which the cutting of the divide entails in short cross-sections, emulating the example of Colonel Gaillard, the engineer upon whom the solution of the Culebra problems has devolved, and who is known as the most cheerful man in the Zone. At a banquet of the "Kangaroos" an orator described him, not inaptly, as "the cheerful chamois of the Culebra cut." Upon him the duty has devolved of severing this backbone that holds North and South America together, and, surprisingly enough, the trouble is not that this backbone is tough, but that it has hardly the strength and consistency of the traditional chocolate éclair. It won't stay cut, but slides together

*"The
cheerful
chamois
of the
Culebra
cut."*

² I am informed since the foregoing was written that the Isthmian Canal Commission are now permitting all men who are honorably discharged after two years' work to take with them these simple metal disks.

again, and, if they can't get together the severed portions, will not sit up, can hardly be made to sit up when supported, what they love to do is to relax or collapse, and to drop down into that dry ditch where some day soon, though it requires the faith that removes mountains to believe it, the ocean greyhounds will go steaming by.

Perhaps you could take in with your eye a cross-section of the staggering spectacle which the Culebra presents, if it were not for the noise. Perhaps you have never heard of noise affecting the optic nerve, but that is merely one way of saying you have never been in the "cut." Down there the man of keenest hearing has no advantage over the deaf mute. If you are not struck speechless as you ought to be, communicate your thoughts in the sign language, but you had better concentrate all your attention on flying boulders, incipient avalanches, and erratic steam shovels. All about you are marshaled machines, whole battalions of machines of every variety, those that build up and those that tear down. The whole gamut of invention is represented from the drill, that goes through granite, to the titanic hose, which washes away bulging hillocks and sharp corners just as though they were so many sand piles erected by children at play. And speaking of children, the concrete guns are simply boys' blow-pipes, magnified to heroic size. They squirt their sticky charges against the uneasy walls of the man-created canyon in the hope (it never was realized) that after this tonic has been

*Steam
shovels
and hose.*

administered the walls will sit up and cease from crumbling away.

But the steam shovels, especially those of the ninety-five ton variety, are the popular tools which report progress every time they eat into the mountain-side, and lay bare its geological secrets. Sometimes moonstones and agates are brought to light, but generally it is dirt, generally dirt of the most "ornery" kind, as the steam-shovel men all agree. After the shovels come the hose, washing up the débris, clearing the sidewalks, as it were, under tremendous hot-air pressure. The cavalry, it would seem, are represented by the patrols and squads of spidery-shaped drills, which make the holes for the dynamite. You think these drills are simply playing and wasting valuable time; as a matter of fact, they do not occupy the centre of this great stage until at noon, when the hungry hordes have gone to eat, or at night when they have gone away to sleep at higher levels. It is only then that the flights and squadrons of drills are withdrawn from the advanced posts, where they have been digging dynamite holes all day, and the electric spark is sent along the invisible wire, and, with a roaring crash, the hills are rent. It's a great moment, this, for the drills, and for those grimy, daring men who play around all day in the bottom of the cut with dynamite sticks as others play with golf clubs. There is no one there to cheer, but it is a hard moment for the bluff steam shovels with their blustering ways, and they generally relieve

*Moon-
stones
and agates
brought up
by shovels.*

the awkwardness of the moment by blowing off steam. Great and mighty are the shovels and deservedly far-reaching is their renown, but the mighty excavation has brought to light nuts which the shovels would find it hard to crack were it not for the preparatory pioneer work of the slender drills and the disintegrating influence of the dynamite charges.

Gold Hill.

The walk through the cut always leads to where Gold Hill, the highest point in the Zone, throws, in more senses than one, its dark shadow over this section of the battlefield. I have always been a follower of those enthusiastic, plausible, and perhaps profoundly ignorant men who have tried so hard to induce the canal commissioners to undermine Gold Hill on the far side, not for treasure trove, but in the hope that, robbed of its underpinnings, this menacing mountain would slide away and disappear from the horizon, where to-day it looms so large and so full of menace. The project has never appealed to the commission. The movement of the hill, they claim, supposing that it had once been started, would depend entirely upon the underlying geological formation, of which we know nothing, and not upon the wishes of the starters. Probably it is best to leave it alone—as they have decided. However, where all the earth is moving it seems excessively optimistic to hope that Gold Hill will always stand stock-still. Perhaps it may slide away from it, perhaps it may slide into the "cut." Certain only it is that so long as Gold Hill

stands where it does there is the possibility of a catastrophe which would wreck our inter-oceanic waterway for years, and perhaps forever.

While the working hours are on and fifty thousand husky men are working within the canal prism at high pressure to see the thing through, you feel proud to be a man and a brother of these men of many colors and of many nations, who, under the leadership and the guidance of American engineers, are removing mountains, flooding waterways, and preparing the dry land. There is no thought of failure or even of appreciable delay along that flar-flung battle line, from the shallows in Limon Bay, where Drake is resting in his leaden coffin, to "old" Panama, where Morgan was wont to singe the King of Spain's beard, and make free with his ingots and his bullion.

*The army
of workers.*

In working hours you are fired by the enthusiasm of the workers. You, too, though only a camp follower, a spectator, an unworthy clerk, if you will, of the ever victorious army, you too follow the "snow-white plume" to the deepest levels or to the top of the continental divide, from whence Balboa did not see both oceans, unless the old Conquistador's eyes were quite different from those of other mortals. But do not venture into the canal prism at night or on the Sabbath, or on one of the infrequent holidays, if you would preserve your equanimity and optimistic poise. I spent one solitary Sunday in the cut, and it required many cheery days of companionship

with the workers, many bright hours of visible conquest to dispel the gloomy forebodings that then assailed, if they did not quite possess me.

It is an unpleasant experience, and yet I know no other way in which the odds of the venture can be gauged, or the terms upon which the battle is being fought, appreciated. Man is resting, but restless Nature is at work and her sinister opposition to man's greatest achievement becomes apparent in all its deadly effectiveness.

As I walked along one of the lower reaches of the cut, a bank caved in before my eyes, and I was enveloped in a splashing spray of muddy water. It was as if a geyser had burst out from the bowels of the embankment. I looked about me for an alarm to sound, but I was alone in a great solitude. How criminal it is that men should be at church or playing baseball (and I knew they were both praying and playing, because I had been cordially invited to both places), while the demon of destruction is having its will of the great work! The torrent issuing from the embankment broadened, my heart sank as I saw the lake forming all around me. Can that crazy Spaniard, who leads a hermit existence in the shack back of the hill, be right after all? How impressively and how without feeling he had said to me only yesterday, "Yes, the Americans are working wonders, their project is worthy of every success, but, of course, success will not be theirs. What God has joined let no man put asunder."

*The
bursting
of a
channel.*

I danced and sprang about dodging the rising flood, and while intent upon maintaining my retreat to the mainland, I saw through the embankment, now wholly collapsed, what had happened. The waters of one of the innumerable tributaries of the Chagres had burst the diverting channel through which it was to be escorted out of harm's way and was flooding the lower levels. Soon it would reach the railway bed, soon submerge the steam shovels. Suddenly a familiar sound fell upon my ears. I have heard Christmas chimes and the lightship's bell off a black lea shore, but nothing ever sounded half so sweet to me as the chug of that automatic ram that started to work in the lower depths of the Culebra cut. Another and another joined in the chorus. Here and there a pump started, and the unruly waters were quelled and pumped back whence, unbidden, they had come.

*Fighting
the water.*

I wish man, with his many inventions, could fight the invading dirt in his absence as successfully as he does the water, but truth compels me to say that, as far as my observation goes, he cannot. All this Sabbath day the glacier-like "slides" were, without haste and without rest, pouring their burden of earth into the deep cut that man, with his many machines and many forms of power, has been so long in making. All the old "slides" were filling in the wounds and covering over the scars, inflicted during the past weeks, while the unmanned steam shovels stood powerless by and one of them at

The slides.

least was well-nigh submerged in the avenging flood. The steam shovels stood by stock-still, but they were not silent under the provocation. A sibilant hissing noise issued from their boilers where the steam is generated that on working days enables the shovels to eat into mountains as though they were old cheeses, and hurl ten-ton boulders around as though they were so many marbles. I could have borne with the old "slides,"—they have, as it were, their traditional justification,—but to see a new "slide" start as I did, indeed two of them, either one of which might sooner or later encompass the overthrow of man's proudest achievement, was hard to bear, especially on a holiday outing.

*The
Cucaracha.*

The Cucaracha is the famous historic slide, which was first heralded to the world, but the men on the fighting line, I find, more greatly fear that moving avalanche more directly in the cut, and which is consequently called the Culebra slide. The Cucaracha, is, however, the senior slide, and it began to give the French trouble in 1884. It still gives trouble and costs much money. The cost of this one pesky bit of earth that won't sit up and behave itself could have been converted profitably into quite a fleet of battleships. It was at first confined to a length of eight hundred feet measured along the line of excavation, but it has extended or expanded to include the entire basin south of Gold Hill for a length of three thousand feet. Originally but six acres, the Cucaracha now covers nearly fifty acres, always moving restless,

irresistible as the sea. Should the Culebra slide develop along these proportions, say the pessimists, our present plan of canal will be defeated.

Of course we are taking big chances with the "slides," and no one can say with absolute certainty when these avalanches of earth may reach the angle of repose so prayerfully worked for, and which is so different in situations which appear to be exactly similar. If it is to be a fight to the finish, no one can say how much it will cost, or how long it will take to extirpate or remove, by excavation, these pockets of rotten earth of such changing and uncertain dimensions. One cannot feel very cheerful when he sees, or thinks he sees, at all events when he knows by scientific measurements which admit of no denial, that three-quarters of a million of cubic yards of earth are moving directly towards the canal channel; when he learns, by the rudest and most convincing of object lessons, that the flow cannot be stopped, at all events down to the present never has been stopped, and that it will all have to be dug out sooner or later by the shovel or the dredge.

*Avalanches
of earth.*

So it can be said that the Culebra cut, or rather the treatment of the "slides" and the breaks in its banks, has developed into the uncertain and experimental feature of the work and the completion of the "cut," as Colonel Goethals has well said, will also mark the date of the canal's completion. Colonel Gaillard, of the Engineers, who is in immediate command of the forces that are

fighting the Antean monster of Culebra, is very anxious to get water into the cut because he believes that the back pressure of the water will give the inefficient banks greater stability; it is also thought that the removal of the railway with its vibration, and the cessation of blasting, will bring relief.

*Terrible
heat.*

Down in the bottom of the "cut" the heat is sweltering, though overhead, on the surface level, the bushes and the few remaining trees are nodding and bowing before the constant breeze. I staggered along, and coming, as I did, to such close quarters with hitherto almost unsuspected forces in the bowels of the earth, strange revelations were to be expected, and certainly they were not lacking. First of all, and certainly to me the most fearful and awful, was the genesis of a new slide. I saw two come into being in the course of the short walk which I describe. One soon subsided, but the other, for all I know, may be sliding yet. It certainly was moving with unimpaired vigor many hours after I witnessed its sinister birth.

To me, in the depths of the chasm, where at noon it is twilight and the burning heavens straight overhead alone are visible, at the very foot of this breathless pit where the sullen dead heat reigned, it seemed passing strange, but it was nevertheless so, above and not so far away in the breezy above-sea-level world outside men were playing ball, and men and women, too, were going to church, and some of the latter were bent on staying to

witness the titanic struggle between the "Kangaroos" and another famous nine, for the Isthmian championship. As the Sunday train passed out of hearing, on its way to the church reservation in Ancon, where the fighting Parson prays and also plays ball, the engineer blew his whistle, I hope, to warn track-walkers and not out of sheer animal spirits. Be this as it may, the whistle rang and re-echoed shrilly through the cut and right under my eyes, and at my feet, which were soon covered with a little avalanche of sand, the "slide" began. First a mere thread of sand it was, then a rivulet of bulkier mass, soon a rock or two was drawn into the current, and a minute later I jumped none too soon to escape a great boulder, which, bereft of its underpinning, came suddenly crashing down into the lower level. In five minutes there was work, and plenty, for a steam shovel or two, and before evening the new slide had swept away a railway siding, buried a steam shovel so deep that it would have to be dug out, and set back the work of those dauntless men, who had determined to see the thing through, by many a weary back-breaking day.

*The
beginning
of a
"slide."*

I fled this slide only to stumble into another. Overhead now the baseball game was waxing hot, the "Kangaroos" had gotten on to the twirl of the new pitcher from Colon and were batting him all over the field. A tremendous hit resounded down the "cut" from the far-away field, a loud hurrah "Go to second! Come home!" from the excited fans, and suddenly, again at my side,

there sprang into being another slide. A little rivulet of restless earth seeking repose, which did not subside for an hour or more, by which time it had deposited some twenty tons or more of indurated clay into Uncle Sam's ditch, and by so much added to the engineers' cares and the taxpayers' burden.

A little further on, and the earth grew suddenly strangely hot under foot. I looked down and it seemed to me I was walking upon smoldering coals or upon a bed of peat burnt into many colors. I had stumbled upon that curious phenomenon which the negroes from Barbados and Jamaica reported to their bosses, a few days before, as "hell hole" or hell gate. Many of the newspapers took it up, and a large section of the European Press was convinced, cable-graphically I suppose, that we had unearthed an awakening volcano in the very track of our four-hundred-million-dollar waterway. Indeed, I do not blame the European brethren if they reported what they actually saw. I myself have seen half a dozen volcanoes in Java (lady's volcanoes the Dutch call them, from their gentle ways and the fact that they can easily be visited by the most Chinese-footed of the fair sex), which did not look so volcanic to the untutored and unscientific eye. At all events, on this day all the ground about was either aflame or a-smoking, and, here and there, the earth had been burnt into heaps of rubbish, which had taken on strange fantastic colors. Whatever it may be, and I personally had not the ghost

*"Hell
hole."*

*The
ground
aflame.*

of a notion, this is not ordinary pay-dirt. But already men, keen-eyed deep-delving geologists from whom Mother Earth cannot conceal her secrets, have brushed away the superstition of the negroes and the theories of the half-baked scientists. It is not the gate to hell, and it is not a destruction-breeding volcano we are face to face with, but an interesting phenomenon, which wise men from all over the world are hastening to see. I confess that the feature of it that I find most interesting, is that the phenomenon has proved helpful rather than hurtful to the work of excavation.

An interesting phenomenon.

It happened in this wise, say the geologists. A steam shovel or a blast, destroying better than it knew, brought to view and exposed to the burning rays of the overhead tropical sun, a great deposit of iron pyrites. A slow fire by combustion or from the blast was the result, to which a nearby lying bed of free lime contributed further fuel; to-day the fire smolders in a bed of lignite, and as nothing is easier to remove than ashes, strict orders have been given to watch the fire, but by no means to put it out; already many hundred yards of what would have been, but for this happy accident and the glowing kiss of the sun, stubborn spoils, have been incinerated and this cross-section of burnt-out earth displays more dissolving colors than ever did Joseph's coat. Only steam-shovel man No. 5011 is disappointed, for when the "volcano" was first reported he offered Colonel Goethals to dig it out "by the roots" with his great machine.

*The
bottom
of the
chasm.*

One hundred yards farther on another phenomenon is staged. It is not visible, however, to the naked eye, unless the eye has the insight of imagination, but it is none the less real, and none the less formidable for all that. We have reached the bottom of the chasm as it yawns to-day. Here the eighty-five-foot level, the future level of the canal, has been reached and indeed surpassed, the extra depth being needed, it is said, for a temporary or emergency drainage canal. And perhaps here the hole has been dug deep as an object lesson of what is yet to come all along the line. In other words, it is a reconnaissance in force to the bottom of the "cut." Here even the most thoughtless and unscientific toiler can get the measure of the work that still awaits us and gird up his loins for the mighty sustained efforts that will yet be required of him.

*Rising
of the
bottom
of the
channel.*

The truth and the correctness of the level reached in this place was ascertained by the most scientific instruments and substantially corroborated by half a dozen others, including the rule of thumb for which most foremen of working gangs have such a strong partiality. But a day or two later the place did not look right. Some with the insight of imagination in their vision said the ground had risen over night, and boldly asserted that they saw it rise while they stood there! When the measuring instruments were brought, science confirmed the imaginative point of view. The bottom of the canal channel had risen a foot in forty-eight hours, and worse luck!

was still rising! A feeling of superstitious awe now possessed some of the men of this particular working gang. Here was indeed no end of a job! Here was an endless chain of excavations! A prey to superstitious fears and powerless to continue on the job, some of the Spaniards here engaged—here where they had made an enviable record for endurance and steadiness, second to no men whether white or black—had to be transferred to less fantastic fields of labor, and the matter-of-fact steam-shovel men were called in by the equally unemotional engineers. The ditch was dug out again “deep and plenty,” as the steam-shovelers say, and again it filled out and welled up to its former level.

*“Deep and
plenty.”*

Then the wise men, responsible for the construction of the world's eighth wonder, put on their thinking caps and found a very natural, if regrettable, explanation of the extraordinary occurrence. The rise of the soil in the “cut,” and indeed in the bottom of the future waterway in many other places, was caused by the weight of the banks which remained and the lateral pressure which they exerted.⁸ Where the height and consequently the weight of the adjacent bank has been reduced, the alarming bulge ceases and the bed of the canal stays dug. Still this topping of the side crests or embankments in many places is costing another pretty penny.

⁸ Observers are losing faith in the “angle of repose” doctrine and the “slides” are assigned by many to the same causes which are given here for the rising of the soil.

*Completion
of canal
in 1913.*

It is well to bear this in mind and also to remember that when you look into the totals of the "cut," the tale is not so tragic as are some of the details. Barring a catastrophe, the "cut" will be completed early in 1913, nine months from now, and thanks to the unforeseen slides we will then have excavated twenty million cubic yards more than we bargained for. Fortunately, however, the cost price of the excavation that we did foresee has been so much smaller than we had any reason to hope it would be, that though we will have dug twenty million cubic yards more than we counted upon, the work is still within, and well within, the estimated cost.

*Work
eighty
per cent
completed.*

In so far as it is permitted to the human finite eye to spy into the future to-day, this the greatest work of man since his activities began is eighty per cent. completed. To-day some of the great water-gates through which the argosies of the future are to pass into the south and eastern seas are completed and ajar, the lighthouses at either entrance and the range lights within, so many beckoning beacons, flash out their invitation, calling attention, like so many gigantic electric signs, to the new route of commerce soon to be thrown open to the world. In the lake reservoir the precious indispensable water is rising nearly an inch a day, and the "cut" section of the work is only dry because of a slender strip of earth or dike, at Matachin, a strip of earth which a steam-shovel could devour in less than half a day.

To-day, for the first time in eight years, the undoubted

progress of the great work is apparent. Up to now progress was a matter for cold, careful scientific calculation, to-day it is a matter of ocular demonstration. Formerly you could, of course, see the dirt fly, but the plot was so carefully concealed that the good of the flying dirt was really a matter of faith. To-day, however, not only is eighty per cent. of the work completed, but the end is in sight. The canal has taken shape and the purposeful co-ordination of all the detached works and isolated workers jumps to the eye of the most short-sighted tourist. Hardly a week passes without "finished" being written upon some important fraction of the work.

Barring some great and unforeseen catastrophe, all the masonry and the concrete will be completed by January 1, 1913. By July, next year, the air- and water-tight gates, which are to hold and control the floods of the Chagres, will be ready to perform their vital functions in the working of the canal. Three gates are already completed and, in operation, have been subjected to severe tests. Indeed, by this date, July, 1913, the whole canal proper should be completed and there is every reason to believe it will be. The terminals may not be ready, and the back-filling of these gigantic concrete castles, which the engineers call locks, may lag behind, but all these ragged edges will have been gathered up and smoothed out long before the date of the official opening in 1915. To-day the railway yards at Balboa are being transferred to make room for the permanent dry-dock and basin on

*Permanent
dry-dock
on Pacific
Coast.*

the Pacific side. It is to be hoped that this is the last transfer of this vagrant railway, which, though it enjoys the shortest route across the continent, has had its road-bed changed so frequently that if all the construction work on the Panama line had been permanent it would reach from the Isthmus to Patagonia, and form one of the longest railways in the world.

The dry-dock will be a thousand feet long and the first terminal pier, which is now well under way, will have the same length and be about two hundred feet wide. The two great coaling stations, one at Cristobal on the Atlantic, and the other at Balboa on the Pacific, will be ready for their grimy work some time before they will be needed. The lake is filling, and the water will be permitted to rise until the fifty-foot level is reached. At this level in the lake the "cut" and the locks will still remain high and dry until July, 1913, when, if all goes well, the great deluge will be inaugurated, as quietly as possible, of course. There will be a dramatic moment, doubtless, when the steam-shovels eat away the earthwork at Matachin, and the water rushes into the "cut" and the lower levels which it has cost so much hitherto to keep dry. But engineers shun drama, and the water rush will be contrived, as quietly as possible, probably by sluices. What will be the actual status of the waterway after this critical moment is passed, no one can say with precision, but it is hoped, and it is quite possible, that in a very few weeks sea-going dredges will have dug out many

Preparations for the opening.

of the remaining shoal places and that, from this time on, freighters of medium tonnage will accomplish the transit of the Isthmus without difficulty.

The Atlantic side breakwater, stretching far out into Limon Bay, affording the ships from the North Atlantic and the oft-vexed Caribbean a safe and smooth refuge, is practically finished, and the mammoth breakwater on the Pacific side, from Balboa out to Naos Island, nearly, if not quite, three miles long, is, thanks to the spoils from the Culebra cut, growing into an ocean promontory with marvelous rapidity.

A wonderfully safe harbor is the result, and some think an ideal naval base, until the dawn of the day when all that sort of thing can be thrown away into the rubbish heap.

None too soon are Congress and the Press occupying themselves with the important details of the permanent organization and government of the canal, for unless all signs should prove deceptive and the hopes of conservative observers prove unfounded, in the early winter of 1913, while the canal may yet be far from completed, as it is proposed to build it, yet the two oceans, long asunder, will be joined by a gated waterway, freighters will be passing through, and the conquest of the centuries, a dream of four centuries at least, will have become an accomplished fact, and soon, very soon, merely a humdrum milestone in the path of man's progress.

Along the way which the old navigators dreamed

*The
permanent
organiza-
tion.*

of and knew must be achieved, the new navigators will penetrate the South Seas and the search for the western route to the Far East, which shaped history and, incidentally, peopled the Americas, will have ended. But the new lands, which the new route makes accessible and even brings near to our main traveled roads, are lands which the old navigators never dreamed of, and here, it seems to me, is the place to dwell upon the epoch-making feature of our work, that triumph of sanitation which has made the construction of the canal and residence on the Isthmus not only possible, but even pleasant.

*The
triumph of
sanitation.*

The far-reaching effects of this successful sanitary campaign cannot be over-estimated, indeed, I fear, with our old-fashioned ideas, which sad experience has instilled into our minds of how costly, in human lives, was the conquest of the tropics, when attempted by the individual, we cannot estimate it at all. But let us, at least, recall that, had the canal been completed twenty years ago, people would still have passed through it with bated breath and grave anxiety, some, indeed, with medicated handkerchiefs before their nostrils. It is certain that the transit of the Isthmus was then regarded as an exceedingly dangerous and unpleasant stage in the journey to the promised lands beyond. To-day, however, thanks to the new science of sanitation and its apostles, who have risen from the ranks in our army medical corps, the promised lands lie near at hand, and those who seek

them are not scourged by pest and pestilence. I have had the honor and the advantage of talking upon this momentous subject on several occasions with Colonel Gorgas, the man, who, despite his many modest protests, has contributed to this proud result more than any other man. He is of the opinion that the conquest of the tropics has been attained, and that, in consequence, vast economic changes are impending. He believes firmly that within a period of time, long indeed, when viewed from the standpoint of a man's life, but short enough when compared with the other historical epochs of the world, in a near future, as history marks its periods, the centres of population and the most flourishing civilization will be found dwelling and flourishing within the confines of those very lands so long shunned, at least so far as our race is concerned, by all save the adventurer and the outcast. Colonel Gorgas, with characteristic modesty, in a recent address to a medical society, put his claim and his prophecy in the following simple words:

The conquest of the tropics attained.

"We, therefore, believe that sanitary work on the Isthmus will demonstrate to the world that the white man can live and work in any part of the tropics and maintain good health, and that the settling of the tropics, by the Caucasian, will date from the completion of the Panama Canal."

In a word, there is much reason to believe that the conquest of the Isthmus will not merely bring the Caribbean countries, so long sidetracked, upon the center of

The conquest of the Isthmus.

the stage, and exert a far-reaching influence upon the world's channels of commerce and transportation routes. There will be revealed to the least observant eye the dawn of a new and most interesting era in the progress of our race.

*Imperator
is launched.*

[In 1912, the German liner *Imperator*, largest ship afloat, is launched from Vulcan Yards, Hamburg. On November 5, 1912, Governor Woodrow Wilson of New Jersey is elected President of the United States by a total of 429 electoral votes. Wilson carries every State in the Union except eight, two of which went for Taft, and the other six for Roosevelt.]

*The Pres-
idential
election.*

THE CONQUEST OF THE AIR¹

(A.D. 1912)

HENRY WOODHOUSE

THE conquest of the air is conceded to be among the most stupendous achievements of the ages. Human flight opens the sky to man as a new road in which to travel, and because it is a road free of all obstructions and leads everywhere, affording the shortest distance to any other place, it offers to man, in its prospective developed stage, unlimited freedom. The aircraft promises to span continents like railroads, bridging seas like ships, to go over mountains and forests like nothing else except birds, and to swiften and simplify the problems of transportation.

*The
stupendous
achievement of
the age.*

Human flight is the realization of our ancestors' remotest imaginings. The idea of human flight, the wish

¹ This article was written expressly for "The World's Great Events," by Henry Woodhouse, the associate editor of "Flying," the official organ of the Aero Club of America. Mr. Woodhouse is the author of many works on aeronautics, and presents here the first concise authoritative account of the work of the pioneers who have contributed to the Conquest of the Air.—EDITOR.

to imitate birds and rise freely in the air, is, possibly, as old as intellect itself. Its origin cannot be ascertained, all records leading to the time-dimmed age of fable. But the myths and lores of different races tell of winged gods and flying men, and show that for ages to fly was the highest conception of the sublime.

The first type of aircraft to travel through the air was the balloon. Its realization was brought about by Joseph and Stephen Montgolfier, two French brothers, who, in 1783, made and launched a large paper bag inflated with hot air. At about the same time Professor Charles, another Frenchman, launched a balloon filled with hydrogen. Here was the origin of the balloon, commonly known as the passive or free balloon which, having no means of directing its own course, therefore merely drifts with the winds. The balloon used to-day is still very much like the balloon of old, and the six thousand ascensions made yearly in different countries represent but little improvement on the ascensions of a century ago.

The power balloon is the natural development of the free balloon. Experiments to develop a dirigible balloon began soon after the first ascension was made, but it was not until the eighteenth century that any success was obtained. The first ascension with a dirigible balloon was made December 24, 1852, by a Frenchman named Henry Giffard, with a spindle-shaped balloon 143 feet long, 39 feet in diameter, fitted with a three-horse-power steam engine and an eleven-foot screw propeller. This

*First
ascension
of a
dirigible
balloon.*

craft made several short trips under good control, and attained a speed of six miles an hour.

Subsequent notable experimenters were: Charles H. L. Dupuy de Lôme (1870-1872); Paul Haenlein (1872); Gaston and Albert Tissandier (1881-1885); Captains Charles and Paul Renard and Krebs (1880-1889); Drs. Woelfert and Schwartz (1896-1899); Albert Santos Dumont (1798-1904). All of these contributed considerably to developing the dirigible balloon, but none succeeded in developing an efficient craft, principally because they lacked suitable motors. That was left to the workers of the twentieth century to achieve.

Dirigible balloons are divided into three classes, the rigid, the semi-rigid, and the non-rigid. The rigid has a frame or skeleton of either wood or metal inside of the outer envelope, to stiffen it; the semi-rigid is reinforced by a wire net and exterior metal frame or platform, while the non-rigid is just a bag filled with gas. Up to 1900 the experiments had, with one exception, been made with non-rigid dirigibles. In that year Count Ferdinand von Zeppelin produced the first of the rigid dirigibles bearing his name. Its construction consisted of a frame of aluminum with 17 compartments containing hydrogen gas to give it its buoyancy; it was 406 feet long, 38 feet in diameter, and had a capacity of 400,000 cubic feet of gas. The first ascension was made on July 2, 1900, on Lake of Constance, Germany. This airship, which was named *Zeppelin I.*, was dismantled in the

*Three
classes of
dirigible
balloons.*

following spring (1901). A second airship containing many improvements was finished in 1905, and made its first trial on November 30th of that year. Its second trial took place January 16, 1906, and it landed at Kisslegg, the first landing made by a Zeppelin on dry land. The dirigible was destroyed by a storm on the night of January 17-18, 1906, at its first anchorage in the open. Subsequently, between the period 1906 and 1912, ten more airships of this type were constructed and were employed for passenger carrying. The first of the passenger-carrying type was the *Deutschland*, launched in 1910. This dirigible was 485.6 long by 45.93 in diameter, had a gas capacity of 681,600 cubic feet; its power plant consisted of three motors totaling 400 horsepower; its speed was 34 miles an hour. It carried a useful load of four tons. In its first trip, on June 19, 1910, it carried 32 people from Düsseldorf to Dortmund, Germany. This dirigible was wrecked on June 28, 1910, on the Teutoburg forest through being unable to stand a storm, due to the fuel giving out.

The latest of the passenger-carrying Zeppelins, the *Viktoría Luise*, was launched in February, 1912. Its size is practically the same as the *Deutschland*, but its power is 450 horsepower, and it attains a speed of 45 miles an hour. Its launching took place at Friedrichshafen in February, 1912; soon after it was put in regular use for cruising, and during the remainder of the year it made hun-

The first
passenger-
carrying
type of
dirigible
balloons.

dreds of trips, including some with 40 passengers and some lasting over forty hours.

The semi-rigid and the non-rigid types of dirigibles also underwent remarkable developments in the period between 1902-1912. The representatives of the semi-rigid have been the *Lebaudy* and *Gross* types, which have been put to extensive use for military services. Among the non-rigid are half a dozen types, including the *Parseval*, *Astra*, and *Clément-Bayard*, which have proven very successful, some carrying a dozen men for over twenty hours without stopping, and reaching an altitude of over 7,000 feet. America has done very little in this line. In 1910 Walter Wellman attempted to cross the Atlantic with an American-made dirigible; in 1912 Melvin Vainman constructed another large dirigible with which he intended to cross the Atlantic, but it was destroyed on July 2, 1912, exploding in the air, due to a faulty pressure valve. At the close of 1912 the dirigibles of the world numbered about fifty.

The aeroplane more than the dirigible or the balloon stands as the emblem of the conquest of the air. The reasons for this are that dynamic flight is a real conquest of the air, a real victory over the battling elements; and that the aeroplane, or any flying machine that may follow it, brings air travel within the reach of everybody. In their practical development, the dirigible will be the steamship of the air which will render invaluable services of a certain kind, the aeroplane will be the automo-

The semi-rigid and non-rigid types of dirigibles.

The aeroplane stands as emblem of the conquest of the air.

bile of the air to be used by the multitude for as many purposes as the automobile is being used.

Dynamic flight, although last to be realized, was really the first attempted. Centuries before the lifting power of hot air or gases had been defined, men dreamed of flight by means of wings like bird flight. But, that was hard—well nigh impossible to realize; for it meant evading or conquering gravity, and it rather seems a fatuous thing even now to think that men should have thought it possible to break the rigid law which holds our world together. It seems as if breaking such law would revolutionize or upset our economic plan.

As has already been pointed out, none of the experimenters before the seventeenth century succeeded in evolving a theory or method of scientific value; that was still true, where dynamic flight is concerned, at the beginning of the nineteenth century.

The very first step in the science of aviation or dynamic flight was taken by Sir George Cayley, an English inventor, in 1809. He was the first to plan dynamic flight on a scientific basis. With admirable lucidity of mind, this inventor planned an aeroplane complete with slightly oblique planes, resting on a wheeled chassis, fitted with propellers, motor, steering and balancing devices.

The description of his monoplane together with his plans were published in *Nicholson's Journal* for Octo-

*Sir George
Cayley.*

ber, 1809. A month later he wrote about his first model as follows:

"I am engaged in making some farther experiments upon a machine I constructed last summer, large enough for aerial navigation, but which I have not had an opportunity to try the effect of, excepting as to its proper balance and security. It was very beautiful to see this noble white bird sail majestically from the top of a hill to any given point of the plain below it, according to the set of the rudders, merely by its own weight descending in an angle of about 18 degrees with the horizon."

In February, 1810, he writes again about his trials:

"Last year I made a machine, having a surface of 300 square feet, which was accidentally broken before there was an opportunity of trying the effect of the propelling apparatus; but its steerage and steadiness were perfectly proved, and it would sail obliquely downward in any direction, according to the set of the rudder. Even in this state, when any person ran forward in it, with his full speed, taking advantage of a gentle breeze in front, it would bear upward so strongly as scarcely to allow him to touch the ground, and would frequently lift him up and convey him several yards together."

The next important contributor was Samuel Henson, *Samuel Henson.* another English inventor who, in 1843, patented what was designated as an "aerial steam carriage," an aeroplane of immense size, which was to be used for carrying

passengers. The thing could not in the light of twentieth century knowledge be called scientific, the "carriage" was never built. Another English scientist, F. H. Wenham, improved on Henson's idea, and in 1867 developed a multiplane. This model was taken up by another inventor, M. Stringfellow, who reduced the number of planes to three, making a triplane, which he fitted with a tail and two propellers. This model was shown at the exhibition of the Aeronautical Society of Great Britain in 1868. Nothing in this model indicates that he had any comprehension of the principles of stability or knowledge of the shapes of surfaces or the power required for flight. Stringfellow deserves, however, much credit for the building of a very light motor, one of sufficient lightness to support a well-designed aeroplane.

In 1872 a French inventor named Alphonse Penaud constructed a small model monoplane. It was only a toy—two flimsy wings actuated by a twisting rubber, but had fore-and-aft stability, something that most of the creations of the time lacked. The system of fore-and-aft stability, of which he was the originator, is used more or less in every aeroplane of the present day. Subsequently, in 1875, Penaud took out a patent on a monoplane fitted with two propellers and having controlling devices. But this was not built, principally because it would have required a light motor, and the lightest available at the time was over sixty pounds per horsepower. He, however, constructed a number of smaller machines.

Another student of bird flight was Louis Pierre Mouillard, a Frenchman, who having observed that large birds in flight, while seeming at rest, could go forward against the wind without a stroke of the wings, constructed a number of gliders built on the principle of bird wings, and experimented with gliding. In 1881 he published a valuable work entitled "*L'Empire de l'Air*," which in-
"L'Empire de l'Air."

Subsequently, he invented a soaring machine, which he patented in 1892.

But Mouillard was a poet rather than a scientist, and it was to the charm of his writing in enthusing others that the world owes a debt of gratitude. These early experimenters laid the foundations of modern aviation. They showed the supporting power of thin rigid surfaces, defined the general shape and structure of aeroplanes, and prepared the work for the next generation, which was to perfect these, and find ways and means to make the aeroplane rise from the ground and maintain equilibrium while in the air.

This new generation came toward the close of the nineteenth century. These new men, the pioneers of modern aviation, were divided into two schools. The first sought to achieve soaring flight by means of large kitelike apparatus, which enabled them to soar in the air against winds, their machines being lifted up and supported by the inertia of the air as kites are. The second sought to develop power flight, that is, to send their

kitelike machines through the air at high speed, being tracted or propelled by revolving screws actuated by motor power.

*Early
experi-
menters.*

The most eminent experimenters in the first school were Otto Lilienthal, who was the chief expounder of gliding flight; P. L. Pilcher, an English follower of Lilienthal; Octave Chanute, an American follower of Lilienthal, and J. J. Montgomery, an American. Lilienthal, a German, was the first to make gliding flight a science, and he first defined the value of arched wings, determined the best shapes for wings, and the amount of pressure to be obtained at various angles of incidence. He met with untimely death while experimenting in 1896. Chanute's experiments were in the line of Lilienthal, but his great contribution was his early encouragement of the Wrights, although the Wrights did not succeed by adopting Chanute's theories.

The leaders of the second school, who actually built and tried power-driven aeroplanes, were: Clement Ader (1890-1897), Sir Hiram Stevens Maxim (1890-1894), and Samuel Pierpont Langley (1895-1903). Clement Ader was the first to construct an aeroplane large and powerful enough to carry a man, and the French Government considered the craft of immense value and employed him to build some for the army, but as each of the two experiments toppled over at the trial and wrecked, the Government refused to further finance the enterprise. While Ader was making his experiments in

France, Sir Maxim was at work constructing a large multiplane for the English Government, which he fitted with two steam engines of 175 horsepower. But like Ader's experiment, it toppled over at the first trial and was wrecked, and the British Government refused further backing. The experience of Samuel Pierpont Langley in America is not unlike the experience of Ader in France and Maxim in England. He was employed by the Board of Ordnance and Fortification of the United States army to construct the "aerodrome" of his own invention, Congress appropriating \$50,000 for the purpose. Langley's machine was a tandem monoplane, 48 feet from tip to tip and 52 feet from bowsprit to the end of its tail. It was fitted with a 50-horsepower engine and weighed 830 pounds. The trials of this aerodrome, two attempts to launch it, were made on October 7 and December 8, 1903. On both occasions the aerodrome became entangled in the defective launching apparatus, and was thrown headlong into the Potomac River—on which the launching trials were made. Following the last failure, when the aerodrome was wrecked, the press ridiculed the whole enterprise, and Congress refused to appropriate money for further experiments. As with the experimenters of the first school, they did not attain practical results. Their machines were usually wrecked at the first trial without giving any clue to the nature or whereabouts of the trouble.

*Langley's
aerodrome.*

Just how much each of these contributed toward the

*Orville and
Wilbur
Wright.*

final success is hard to say. The matter has not yet been defined, and, possibly, only one man—Orville Wright—is qualified to say. Most of these men made valuable additions to the knowledge of the science, but all of them mixed the practicable with the impracticable in such a way as to make it risky to adopt their conceptions as to the basis of actual flight, a fraction of error being enough to spoil the unity of truths that must be present, and so to end an experiment in catastrophe.

Wilbur Wright, who, having tested and dissected the theories and notions of all of these pioneers, knew the exact worth of each. He could have made the valuation, but died before he had done so. In a paper on Lilienthal, which he wrote a day or two before his death, he defined the causes of previous failures, and made a general rule by which all could be judged and their works valued.

He wrote: "One of the greatest difficulties of the problem has been little understood by the world at large. This was the fact that those who aspired to solve the problem were constantly pursued by expense, danger, and time. In order to succeed, it was not only necessary to make progress, but it was necessary to make progress at a sufficient rate to reach the goal before money gave out, or before accident intervened, or before the portion of life allowable for such work was past. The problem was so vast and many sided that no one could hope to win unless he possessed unusual ability to grasp the essential points, and to ignore the nonessentials. It was

*The
problem
vast and
many
sided.*

necessary to have a genius for solving almost innumerable difficult problems with a minimum expenditure of time, a minimum expenditure of money, and a minimum risk of accident. A study of the failures of the nineteenth century shows clearly that none of the important workers stood still, but that the rate of progress was so slow that each one was overcome and removed from the race by one of the causes just mentioned before the goal was reached. If they had possessed the faculty of doing things more quickly, more simply, and less expensively, they might not have been overtaken by old age, lack of funds, or accident. Some were traveling at a rate which would have required fifty years or more to reach success. Others were spending money at a rate which would have necessitated an expenditure of millions of dollars in order to complete the task. When the detailed story is written of the means by which success in human flight was finally attained, it will be seen that this success was not won by spending more time than others had spent, nor by spending more money than others had spent, nor by taking greater risks than others had taken.

"Those who failed for lack of time had already used more time than was necessary; those who failed for lack of money had already spent more money than was necessary; and those who were cut off by accident had previously enjoyed as many lucky escapes as reasonably could be expected."

The realization of power flight was thus left to the

*The
realization
of power
flight.*

twentieth century—and to the Wright brothers. In view of the complex problems to be solved, this achievement may be called stupendous.

As the story of the achievement runs, Wilbur Wright and his brother, Orville Wright, two men of remarkable characteristics, sons of the Rev. Milton Wright, were presented in their boyhood, thirty odd years ago, with a toy helicopter, a butterfly-shaped contrivance, consisting of paper wings fitted with a tin propeller which, when made to revolve by twisted rubber, caused the toy to shoot forward through the air. That toy fired their imaginations, and they saw it, in magnified form, capable of carrying a man.

Their attempt to fly large helicopters constructed on the idea of the toy did not bring practical results and until 1896 they did not give the matter of artificial flight more than passing attention. In the summer of that year, however, the news of the accident and death of Otto Lilienthal, the German champion of gliding flight, stirred them to action, and they set themselves to study aerodynamics and the works of Lilienthal, Mouillard, Chanute, Maxim, and Langley, the most prominent experimenters at that time.

Their experiments with a glider began in the fall of 1900 at Kitty Hawk, North Carolina. There, on the barren sand dunes of North Carolina, these two intrepid investigators took all theories and tried them one by one—only to find, after two years of hard, discouraging

work, that they were based more or less on guesswork. Thereupon they cast aside old theories and patiently put the apparatus through innumerable gliding tests, ever changing, adding, modifying—setting down the results after each glide, comparing and changing again and again, advancing inch by inch, until they had, at last, developed a glider wonderfully exact, which, when fitted with a light motor, also built by them, made initial flights on December 17, 1903, of from twelve to fifty-nine seconds' duration. This, then, was the birth of the aeroplane, the flimsy, iconoclastic thing which seems to evade Newton's laws, eliminates frontiers, and promises to expand civilization as much as have the steamship, the railway, and electricity.

The Wrights did not make their achievement public at the time; in fact, until 1908 they flew only in private.

But the report of their wonderful achievement, nevertheless, went far and wide, and stimulated those who had given up experimenting and inspired others to take up experiments. Octave Chanute, in 1902, went to France and related the early successes of the Wrights with their glider, and described the general shape of the Wright machine. The result of this trip was that a half dozen enthusiasts, including Louis Blériot, Captain Louis Ferber, Ernest Archdeacon, and, later, the Voisin brothers and Albert Santos Dumont, took up the work, thus founding the mighty French school which has increased so greatly and done so much since. The first of

*The
early
reports of
the
Wrights'
success.*

this school to succeed was Santos Dumont, the Brazilian aeronaut sportsman. He constructed a machine of original design, and in 1906 made short sustained flights of from fifty to seven hundred feet in straight line, which created a world-wide sensation at the time. His machine was not, however, capable of more than short straight-line flights, and for two years he was unable to repeat his feat. Meantime, others of the French school graduated and won honors. The Voisin brothers turned constructors and teachers, and with their co-operation Leon Delagrangé, Henry Farman, Louis Blériot, and others prosecuted practical experiments and succeeded in getting their creations to leave the ground for modest flights. At this juncture, in the summer of 1908, the Wrights started out to give public demonstrations, and their methods supplied and suggested to the French experimenters the means to modify and improve their aeroplanes, particularly the means of balancing them, which had, until then, been a perplexing problem. Some months before this some American enthusiasts had combined under the auspices of Mrs. Mabel G. Bell, the wife of the inventor of the telephone, and organized the Aerial Experiment Association. Glenn H. Curtis, one of the experimenters, developed a suitable type of aeroplane, and in 1908-1909 became proficient in piloting it, and founded a school which did much in the following years to popularize and develop aviation in America. During the period of 1908, 1909, 1910, and part of 1911 aviation

developed in fast strides, generously supported by public interest in its flights. During this time, under the incentive of competition, aviators learned to fly better and better, and aviation developed rapidly, especially in France. After that, after the demonstration of the summer of 1911, when scores of airmen took part in long circuits across countries and continents, the military authorities began to adopt it, and by the end of 1912 ten nations had aviation organizations in their armies, representing an investment of over ten million dollars, France alone spending close to six million dollars in its own organization.

At the close of 1912, at the time this is written, there are 2,500 licensed pilots and as many non-licensed, and about eighty aviation schools, with approximately one thousand pupils. Aeroplane making and selling is already an important industry, with an invested capital of \$50,000,000, and there are about forty different kinds of standard aeroplanes. The record flights include flights up to 18,000 feet altitude, 105 miles an hour speed, and continuous flying for over thirteen hours. A distance of over 500 miles has been covered by an airman in a single flight made between sunrise and sundown.

Aeroplane making changed considerably early in 1911, when the French Government offered \$268,000 for aeroplanes fulfilling certain requirements. Engineers, finding inducement, entered the field, and aeroplanes underwent wonderful transformations, while aero motors became more efficient.

The same evolution is taking place in England, Russia, Germany, and Italy, where the Governments have offered large sums as prizes for efficient military aeroplanes. To fulfill the requirements of the British War Office, for instance, an aeroplane must be capable of flying for four and a half hours without stopping with a live load of 350 pounds, in addition to fuel, oil, and instruments; it must fly at a mean speed of 55 miles per hour, and stay up for one hour in an altitude of 4,500 feet, fully loaded; it must be capable of starting and landing from freshly plowed land, and the pilot must be able to start the machine without assistance. It must do all the above easily, and it must be so constructed that two men can take turns at piloting and can observe the country below, in front, and on either side. The conditions of the French Government are but a little less strict.

A short space of eighteen months, since exhibition flying was discontinued in Europe, has introduced steel for general construction; heavy wheels, reinforced and improved chassis to land on; strong cables for trussing, double cables for controls; better joints, turnbuckles, bolts, and general accessories. It has also brought thoroughly tested propellers, remarkably efficient motors—with self-starters, self-acting gasoline pumps, oil safety valves, special devices to minimize the danger of fire; and scientific instruments to facilitate travel, and safety helmets and safety belts to minimize hurts when acci-

dents happen. Other innovations have been hoods to shield aviators from the elements, comfortable seats with special arrangement for carrying passengers. The standard makes are obtainable in three or four types—light, medium weight, or heavy; for sport, for racing, for cross-country flying, for military service, and to carry a different number of passengers. The last innovation has been the hydro attachment for water flying, which is now being supplied with a dozen standard machines, and is in itself a wonder in safety and utility. Glenn H. Curtiss is principally responsible for this last, the most practical innovation made since flying began. He developed the first successful craft of this kind in 1911, and its practicability made it an instant success.

A year ago the hydraeroplane was looked upon as a freak in Europe, and there was only one successful type; now water flying is considered the safest form of flying; there are about fifteen types of water planes, and recently not less than a dozen hydraeroplane meets took place in Europe. The most convincing argument in its favor is that there has not been a single fatality in water flying, although tens of thousands of flights have been made. Four constructors—Blériot and Bréguet, in France; Etrich, in Austria; and Roe, in England—also supply aerial limousines, which are limousine bodies with aeroplane wings. The Blériot and Etrich have been flying for months with thorough success.

*The
hydraero-
plane.*

Thus the conquest of the air has progressed to the

*The
future of
aviation.*

point of certainty. Looking forward, with the tremendous progress of the past decade in sight, we see approaching in rapid strides the aerial age, when the skies will be as Tennyson saw them, filled

“ . . . With commerce, argosies of magic sails,
Pilots of the purple twilight, dropping down with
costly bales.”

*Funeral of
General
William
Booth,
founder of
the Salva-
tion Army.*

[In 1912, Edmond Audemars, a Swiss aviator, flies from Paris to Berlin (530 miles), making four landings. More than 30,000 persons take part in the funeral services of General William Booth, the founder of the Salvation Army. The Chinese Government authorizes Sun Yat Sen to build a comprehensive system of railways with money raised through the new loan. A new Serbian Ministry is formed, with N. Pachitch as Premier. Railway and telegraphic communication in Nicaragua are reopened by United States marines. Turkey and Bulgaria begin active preparations for war; Bulgaria is accused of interference in Turkey's Macedonian affairs.]

THE LEAGUE OF THE BALKAN STATES

(A.D. 1912)

HAROLD SPENDER

ONCE more all the wise have been confounded, for a crisis in the Near East has come upon Europe as an almost complete surprise. The league of Balkan States was formed with such complete secrecy that the fact was scarcely known, and its extent was certainly not realized in any of the chancelleries of Europe. *Complete secrecy observed.*

The Balkan Ministers in London do not themselves yet know the terms of the present understanding, but the American public will be safe in assuming that the Balkan agreement is a firm compact between the four States—Bulgaria, Servia, Montenegro, and Greece. They will support one another in case of war and will negotiate together in case of peace. Calculations of coming disunion between the Balkan States are likely to be wholly dispelled, for the four Christian Governments in the Near East have prepared for everything and have

foreseen everything. They have even, I believe, arranged for a possible partition of Macedonia between their respective countries in case of victory in the war. You have here, therefore, a sudden appearance in Europe of the new and most formidable corporate power, the Balkan federation.

As long as these four States—Servia, Bulgaria, Greece, and Montenegro—acted separately they were powerless. As long as they could be stirred up to mutual quarrels, and even mutual slaughter, by agents of Turkey or the Powers, they were playing a game as foolish as it was wicked.

All that was needed for Europe was that she should stand by and look on. Even the cry of humanity, so powerful in 1877, was practically taken away from the Christians by the horrible atrocities perpetrated by Greeks and Bulgars a few years ago.

Murder in Macedonia has ceased to be regarded as a breach of the Eighth Commandment. Instead of action, we had nerveless proposals, written in vanishing ink. Scheme succeeded scheme and programme succeeded programme, like ghosts in "Macbeth," and with little more reality.

The plain fact is that up to recently neither the Powers nor Turkey ever actually contemplated doing anything at all.

It always seemed, in the end, more to their interest that the reign of murder should go on rather than that

the Macedonian question should really have to be decided once and for all.

Now Europe is faced with the Nemesis of this conduct. The moral authority of the Powers has disappeared. Having absolutely neglected the duties of its guardianship, the Powers find themselves thrown over by their own wards. Those wards suddenly stand erect and face the world upright, claiming the right to conduct their own affairs.

"Who would be free, themselves must strike the blow," sang Byron, and that is the watchword of the Balkan uprising. The Balkan States are of age. They will keep their houses in order themselves.

The cowardice of the Powers has defeated itself and has instantly precipitated this new fact of a Balkan federation. A most surprising countermove, it has brought back into instant and actual life the old European concert.

*The
cowardice
of the
Powers.*

Up to the end of last week Europe was divided into two hostile camps, the Triple Alliance and the Triple Entente, but within three days of the Balkan events, those two camps had coalesced, and Europe had become one.

M. Sazonoff, the Russian Foreign Minister, who happened to be in Western Europe, had arranged with France and England. France had arranged with Austria-Hungary, and Austria-Hungary had brought Germany behind her.

All the Powers had come together, and the first musical performance of the new concert was a symphony of joint notes into the ears of the Balkan States and Turkey. These notes took a considerable number of hours in preparing, and for several days the wires hummed between the capitals of Europe.

Speaking broadly, Russia and France were in favor of kindness to the Balkan States and severity to Constantinople. Austria-Hungary was in favor of severity to the Balkan States and kindness to Constantinople, while Great Britain stood somewhere in between, and Germany supported Austria-Hungary. The final result was that after many emendations notes were composed which were brave to the weak and cautious to the strong.

*The new
concert of
Europe.*

Such is the new concert of Europe. This mutual fear may be strong enough to hold the European Powers together for a time, for it is really a very serious fear. It centres around the one notorious fact, the rivalry of Austria-Hungary and Russia in the southeast of Europe.

Russia, it will be remembered, only acquiesced in the annexation of Bosnia and Herzegovina four years ago, after a German threat of war, but she cannot acquiesce again. If Austria-Hungary sends troops south, it is probable that Russia will move; and if Russia moves, Germany moves, and if Germany moves, France moves, and then— There you have the terrible tormenting circle of dread, which keeps Europe powerless and afraid.

[Funeral ceremonies of the Emperor Mutsuhito in Tokyo. General Nogi, supreme military councillor of Japan, and his wife commit suicide as a tribute to the late Emperor. Montenegro declares war on Turkey on October 8, 1912. Turkey declares war on Serbia and Bulgaria. Greece enters war against Turkey on October 18. The Bulgarians take the fortress of Kurt Kokalo and the town of Mustafa Pacha. Blockade of ports by both Turkish and Greek navies. Greeks take Ellassona. Bulgarians cross Turkish frontier and take Czarevo, Selo, and Gorna. Serbians take Rulya Heights. Bulgarians advance on Adrianople. Bulgarians capture Jamaia. Serbians take Prishtine. Kirk Kilisse falls to Bulgarians. Serbians capture Kumanova, Novi Bazar and Koprulu. The Bulgarians take Ishtip, Macedonia. Turks gain Viza. Turks are defeated in Thrace. Serbians capture Prisrend. Greeks occupy Gravena. Turks destroy Metzovo, Epirus. Turkey asks the Powers to intervene for peace. The Greeks, under Crown Prince Constantine, take Salonica. Monastir, the remaining Turkish stronghold in Macedonia, is surrendered to the Serbian troops after three days' desperate fighting. Turkey rejects the armistice terms offered. The Serbian army occupies the port of Durazzo, Albania. The Turkish cabinet approves the protocol of an armistice. A fourteen days' armistice is signed at Baghchetch by representatives of Turkey, Bulgaria, Serbia and Montenegro, Greece refusing to sign. Peace negotiations began in London on December 16,

*Suicide of
General
Nogi.*

*The First
Balkan
War.*

*Greeks
take the
city of
Salonica.*

*Serbians
take
Durazzo.*

*Beginning
of peace
negotia-
tions.*

*Irish
Home
Rule Bill.*

*Fate of the
Scott expe-
dition.*

1912, but commissioners adjourned on account of failure to satisfy conflicting demands. 1913: Parcel post service begins in the United States. Irish Home Rule Bill passes the final stage in the House of Commons. Raymond Poincaré is elected President of France. Balkan Allies declare the armistice is ended. British House of Lords rejects the Irish Home Rule Bill. Battle in streets of Mexico City between Federals and followers of Felix Diaz. News received that Captain R. F. Scott, the British explorer, and four others perished on March 29, 1912, while returning from the South Pole. President Madero of Mexico is taken prisoner and Federal General Victoriano Huerta proclaimed provisional President. Poincaré is inaugurated President of France. Dowager Empress of China dies at Peking. Ex-President Madero and ex-Vice-President Suarez are shot. Woodrow Wilson inaugurated President of the United States. Balkan Allies, announcing peace terms, demand the cession of Adrianople, Scutari, the Ægean Isles, and Crete. King George I. of Greece is assassinated at Salonica. Crown Prince Constantine acclaimed King of Greece. Bulgars take Adrianople. Disastrous floods in Ohio and Indiana. First Parliament of China convenes. Japan protests against Anti-Alien Land Ownership Law in California. The Montenegrin army takes Scutari. Austria declares that if the Montenegrins do not evacuate Scutari by May 1 war will be declared. Peace treaty is signed between the Balkan Allies and Turkey. The European Powers

demand that the Balkan States demobilize their armies. Bulgaria demands a withdrawal of Serbian troops from the territory claimed by Bulgaria. Greek, Turkish and Roumanian armies advance in Bulgarian territory. Turks recapture Adrianople. Peace treaty between the Balkan States signed at Bucharest. Castro rebellion checked. Twentieth Universal Peace Congress at The Hague. Carnegie Peace Palace at The Hague is dedicated. Yuan-Shi-Kai takes oath as President of China. Serbian troops withdraw from Albania. Six thousand business men of Ulster pledge themselves not to pay taxes under a home-rule Irish Parliament. Turkey and Greece sign Treaty of Peace. The Euphrates Dam is completed. Crete is formally annexed to Greece. 1914: Mexican rebels, reinforced by General Villa, capture Ojinaga City. A volcanic eruption on Sakura Island, Japan, destroys three towns and several hundred persons. Direct wireless communication is established between Germany and the United States. Prince William of Wied accepts the throne of Albania. The United States Senate ratifies treaties of arbitration with Great Britain, Norway, Sweden, Switzerland, Portugal, Spain, Italy, and Japan. Turkey and Serbia sign treaty of peace at Constantinople. 100,000 Unionists in London join in demonstration against Home Rule. United States marines are arrested in Tampico and the United States demands a salute to the United States flag as an apology. Huerta does not comply, and the American fleet is ordered to

*A Second
Balkan
War.*

*The
Carnegie
Peace
Palace.*

*Treaties of
arbitra-
tion.*

Tampico. Huerta still refuses to salute the American flag, and Vera Cruz is captured by the United States forces. Battle between Trinidad district miners and Colorado State troops. The Mexican rebel leader, Villa, declares that he will not war with the United States. Congress passes the Volunteer Army Bill. The United States accepts mediation by Argentina, Brazil and Chili. President orders Federal troops to Colorado. Severe earthquake in Sicily. Mexican Peace delegates reach Washington. The *Aquitania*, the newest and largest British liner, sails for New York. The United States Government prohibits all future shipments of arms to Mexico. Peace Centenary of England and America held in London.

*Argentina,
Brazil and
Chili as
mediators.*

*The Peace
Centenary.*

On June 23, 1914, the Curtiss seaplane, *America*, intended for transatlantic flight, is successfully maneuvered at Keuka Lake, New York. On June 28, Archduke Francis Ferdinand, heir apparent to the throne of the Austro-Hungarian Empire, and his morganatic wife, the Duchess of Hohenberg, are assassinated by a Serb student in Serajevo.]

END OF VOLUME EIGHT

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